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# COMPENDIUM OF UNIVERSAL HISTORY

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A  
COMPENDIUM  
OF  
UNIVERSAL HISTORY  
FROM  
THE EARLIEST PERIOD TO THE YEAR 1859

WITH QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION

TRANSLATED FROM THE 27TH EDITION OF THE GERMAN ORIGINAL

BY

CHARLES THEOMARTYR STAFFORD

FOURTH EDITION

Thoroughly Revised and Corrected, and considerably Enlarged

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LONDON  
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1860

223. c. ~~35~~ 20.





## P R E F A C E

TO THE FOURTH EDITION.

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THE present volume is a faithful translation of a book that has passed through twenty-seven editions, and been long in use in schools all over Germany, where the standard of school-books is higher than in most countries.

As much information is afforded in it as is compatible with the small size of the work, which has been calculated, with reference not to the magnitude of the subject, but to the capacities and inclinations of juvenile students. Many otherwise excellent abridgments fail of their intended purpose, and are rendered intolerably dry and distasteful, from the attempt to crowd into them a disproportionate quantity of matter.

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The too slight mention of English history, the defect with which it has been not unjustly charged, is perhaps rather in its favour in English schools, where English history is sure to be made an object of special study ; as the repetition of the mere outline of events with which the pupils are already acquainted in detail, must be both uninteresting and wearisome.

In the prolonged absence of Mr. Stafford, who greatly regrets the inaccuracies which had found their way into the former editions, the Editor has thoroughly revised the present one (the 4th), enlarged considerably the Chronological Sum-

mary, and added some chapters \* to bring the history down to the most recent period. A table has been also given of the principal inventions and discoveries, which afford such useful landmarks of the progress of civilisation.

\* After p. 236.



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## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

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- B. C.
- 4000. Creation of the first of the human race.
  - 2348. The Deluge.
  - 2100. Nimrod founds Babylon.
  - 2059. Ninus became king of Assyria.
  - 1921. Abraham : the patriarchs.
  - 1800. Joseph. The Jews go to Egypt.
  - 1550. Cecrops founds Athens ; Danaus, Cadmus.
  - 1500. Moses leads the Jews out of Egypt.
  - 1300. Argonautic expedition.
  - 1225. War with Thebes.
  - 1200. The Phœnician trade flourishes.
  - Obelisks and pyramids erected in Egypt.
  - 1180. Taking of Troy by the Greeks. Æneas, Hector, Achilles, Agamemnon, judges in Israel, Samuel.
  - 1100. Saul, king of Israel.
  - 1068. Codrus, the last king of Athens, dies for his country. Archons appointed.
  - 1050. David, king of Israel.
  - 1000. Solomon builds the magnificent temple at Jerusalem. Homer.
  - 975. Separation of the kingdom of Israel and Judah.
  - 888. Sardanapalus. Fall of the Assyrian empire.
  - Dido founds Carthage.
  - 776. Lycurgus, the Spartan lawgiver. Time reckoned by Olympiads.
  - 754. Romulus and Remus build Rome.
  - 650. Psammitich sole ruler in Egypt.
  - 600. Fall of the Assyrian empire.
  - Nebuchadnezzar founds the great Babylonian empire.
  - 588. Babylonian captivity. Nebuchadnezzar destroys Tyre.
  - Solon lawgiver in Athens.
  - 555. Babylonian empire destroyed.
  - Cyrus founds the Persian empire, from the Danube to the Indus.

B. C.

- 510. Tarquinius Superbus, the last Roman king. Rome becomes a republic.
- 490. The Greeks, under Miltiades, defeat the Persians at Marathon.  
Darius. Xerxes.
- 480. Victory of the Greeks at Salamis under Themistocles.  
Death of Leonidas at Thermopylæ.
- 479. Defeat of the Persians on the same day at Plataea and Mycale.  
Pausanias and Aristides.
- 450. The Cimonian peace.
- 444. Pericles, Herodotus, and Phidias.  
Nehemiah rebuilds Jerusalem.
- 431. Commencement of the Peloponnesian war, lasting twenty-eight years. Plague of Athens.
- 405. Defeat of the Athenians at Egospotamos.
- 404. Capture of Athens by the Lacedæmonians. During the early part of the Peloponnesian war, in which Thucydides had a command, Socrates, though ridiculed by Aristophanes, was teaching Xenophon, Plato, and Alcibiades.
- 395. Rome taken by the Gauls.
- 370. Epaminondas in Thebes.
- 338. Battle of Chœronea. Philip of Macedon subjects Greece.
- 333. Alexander the Great destroys the Persian empire, and extends the Græco-Macedonian empire from the Adriatic to the Indus. On his death it falls asunder into smaller states.
- 323. Alexander dies at Babylon.
- 284. Ætolian and Achaian leagues.
- 281. Romans conquer Pyrrhus.
- 264—241. First Punic War.
- 218—201. Second Punic War. Hannibal, Fabius, Scipio.
- 149—146. Third Punic War. Carthage and Corinth destroyed by the Romans. Africa and Greece become Roman provinces.
- 102. The Cimbri and Teutoni destroyed by Marius.
- 88. Civil war between Marius and Sylla.
- 66. Cicero. Catiline's conspiracy.
- 62. Palestine becomes a Roman province.
- 60. First Triumvirate of Cæsar, Pompey, and Crassus.

B. C.

At this period Rome was everywhere victorious abroad, and continually in civil dissension at home.

55. Landing of Julius Cæsar in Britain.

48. Battle of Pharsalia.

44. Julius Cæsar murdered.

43. Second Triumvirate—Lepidus, Antony, and Octavius.

31. Battle of Actium. Octavius conquers Antony and Cleopatra, and is proclaimed emperor by the name of Augustus.

The Roman empire extended in this reign from the Atlantic to the Euphrates.

Jesus Christ was born in the reign of Augustus.

A.D. 9. The legion of Varus destroyed in Germany.

33. The crucifixion.

43. The Romans, under Aulus Plautus, again land in Britain.

70. Jerusalem taken by Titus.

79. Destruction of Herculaneum and Pompeii by a great eruption of Mount Vesuvius.

80. Agricola erects a chain of forts in Britain from the Solway Firth to the Firth of Forth.

200. { The misgovernment of the Roman Empire invites the attacks of barbarous hordes from Germany.

250. { Rome invaded by the Goths.

271. { Rome invaded by the Alemanni and Marcomani.

313. { The Emperor Constantine becomes a Christian.

325. { The great council of Nice.

376. { Rome invaded by the Huns and Alares.

406. { Rome invaded by the Goths under Alaric.

409. { Vandals and Suevi settle in Spain.

410. { Rome taken by Alaric.

419. { Kingdom of the Visigoths founded in Spain.

420. { Romans finally abandon Britain.

Settlement of the Franks under Pharamond in Gaul.

449. { The Saxons invited into Britain by Vortigern.

451. { Invasion of Gaul by the Huns under Attila.

455. { Vandals, under Genseric, sack Rome.

476. { Rome taken by Odoacer, king of the Heruli, and end of the Western Empire.

488. { Ostrogoths, under Theodoric, invade Italy.

533. { Belisarius conquers the Vandals in Spain.

Hordes of Barbarians invade the Roman Empire

- A. D.  
 538. Belisarius conquers the Goths in Italy.  
 554. Justinian's general, Narses, conquers the North of Italy.  
 563. Lombards invade Italy.  
 622. Flight of Mahomet to Mecca, or Hejira, the Epoch of the Mahometans.  
       Diffusion of Mahometanism, and rise of the Saracen power.  
 637. Jerusalem conquered by the Saracens.  
 711. Saracens invade northern Africa, and then cross the Straits of Gibraltar and conquer Spain.  
 732. Defeat of the Moorish army near Tours by Charles Martel.  
 800. The Frank Empire founded by Charlemagne.  
 843. The Frank Empire divided into France, Germany, and North Italy.  
 871. Accession of Alfred the Great to the throne of England.  
 880. Separation of the Greek from the Latin Church.  
 901. Death of King Alfred at the age of fifty-three.  
 919. Henry, called "the Town Builder," sovereign of Germany.  
 964. Otho the Great unites Italy to the German Empire.  
 1066. William of Normandy gains the battle of Hastings, and becomes King of England.  
 1073. Pope Gregory VII. Investiture of Bishops. Celibacy of the Clergy.  
 1076. Henry IV. Emperor of Germany.  
 1087. Death of William the Conqueror, and succession of his son William Rufus.  
 1095. The Crusades.  
 1100. Jerusalem conquered by the Crusaders under Godfrey of Bouillon.  
       William Rufus shot by an arrow in the New Forest.  
       Accession of Henry I.  
 1135. Death of Henry. Accession of Stephen.  
 1154. Death of Stephen. Accession of Henry II.  
 1187. Jerusalem conquered by the Sultan Saladin.  
 1189. Death of King Henry II. Accession of Richard I.  
 1199. Death of King Richard I. Accession of John.  
 1200. Great commercial prosperity in Venice and Genoa.  
 1215. The great Charter of England obtained from King John.  
 1216. Death of King John. Accession of Henry III.

- A. D.
- 1240. The Hanseatic League.
  - 1272. Death of King Henry III. Accession of Edward I.
  - 1282. The Sicilian Vespers.
  - 1298. Eastern Empire attacked by Ottoman, the founder of the Ottoman Empire.
  - 1307. Insurrection in Switzerland. William Tell. Death of King Edward I. Accession of Edward II.
  - 1327. Murder of King Edward II. Accession of Edward III.
  - 1346. Commencement of the hundred years' war between England and France.
  - 1353. The Turks conquer Gallipoli on the Dardanelles.
  - 1377. Death of King Edward III. Accession of Richard II.
  - 1399. King Richard deposed and murdered. Henry IV.
  - 1402. The Turkish Sultan Bajazet defeated by Tamerlane.
  - 1413. Death of Henry IV. Accession of Henry V.
  - 1415. Huss burnt at Constance.
  - 1421. Conquests of the English in France. Henry V. enters Paris.
  - 1422. Death of Henry V. His son Henry VI. proclaimed King of France as well as of England.
  - 1430. Maid of Orleans. The French victorious.
  - 1453. Constantinople taken by the Turks. Greeks take refuge in Italy. Fall of the Eastern Empire. Discovery of the Western Coast of Africa.
  - 1460. Beginning of the wars of York and Lancaster, called the wars of the Roses.
  - 1471. King Henry found dead in the Tower. Assumes the Crown. Edward IV.
  - 1480. Inquisition in Spain.
  - 1483. Death of King Edward IV. Richard III. crowned.
  - 1485. Richard III. killed at the Battle of Bosworth. Henry VII. crowned.
  - 1492. Columbus discovers America. Piratical states in North Africa.
  - 1498. Passage by the Cape to the East Indies discovered.
  - 1509. Death of King Henry VII. Accession of Henry VIII.
  - 1517. Reformation in Germany. Luther. Melancthon. Zwingli in Switzerland.
  - 1519. Magellan first circumnavigates the world.
  - 1530. The Augsburg confession.
  - 1531. Henry VIII. of England declares himself Supreme Head of the Church.

- A. D.
- 1540. The society of Jesuits founded by Ignatius Loyola, in aid of the Roman Catholic Church.
  - 1547. Death of Henry VIII. Accession of Edward VI.
  - 1553. Death of Edward VI. Accession of Queen Mary. Restoration of Catholicism in England.
  - 1555. Treaty of Augsburg. Charles V. abdicates, and transfers the crown of Spain and the Netherlands to his son Philip.
  - 1558. Death of Queen Mary. Accession of Queen Elizabeth.
  - 1559. Protestantism restored in England.
  - 1572. The Massacre of St. Bartholomew under Charles IX. of France.
  - 1580. Portugal becomes a Spanish province. Revolt of the Netherlands.
  - 1588. Destruction of the great Spanish Armada.
  - 1589. Henry IV. of France.
  - 1600. Successes of the Dutch in the East Indies.
  - 1603. Death of Queen Elizabeth. Accession of James I. Gunpowder Plot.
  - 1618. Beginning of the Thirty Years' War in Germany.
  - 1625. Death of King James. Accession of Charles I.
  - 1640. Portugal again becomes a separate kingdom.
  - 1642. Beginning of the civil war in England.
  - 1643. Louis XIV. becomes king of France.
  - 1648. Peace of Westphalia.
  - 1649. King Charles I. beheaded.
  - 1653. Oliver Cromwell made Lord Protector of England.
  - 1658. Death of Cromwell.
  - 1660. King Charles II. proclaimed.
  - 1675. Frederick William, the great Elector of Brandenburg, gains the Battle of Fehrbellin.
  - 1683. The Turks advance to Vienna.
  - 1685. Revocation of the Edict of Nantes. Death of King Charles II. Accession of James II.
  - 1688. Deposition of King James II. Accession of William III.
  - 1689. Peter the Great in Russia. Charles XII. in Sweden.
  - 1701. Spanish War of Succession.
  - 1702. Death of King William III. Accession of Queen Anne.
  - 1708. English East India Company established.
  - 1714. Death of Queen Anne. Accession of George I.
  - 1715. Death of Louis XIV. of France.
  - 1727. Death of King George I. Accession of George II.

- A. D.
- 1740. Frederick the Great of Prussia. Maria Theresa, Empress of Austria. Austrian war of Succession.
  - 1745. Rebellion in Scotland in favour of the Stuarts.
  - 1755. Earthquake in Lisbon.
  - 1756. Beginning of the Seven Years' War. English conquests in the East Indies and North America, and great increase of maritime power.
  - 1760. Death of King George II. Accession of George III.
  - 1768. Australia discovered. Captain Cook's voyages.
  - 1772. First division of Poland.
  - 1776. Independence of the United States of America. Washington and Franklin.
  - 1783. Termination of the American War. Peace of Versailles.
  - 1789. Beginning of the French Revolution.
  - 1793. King Louis XVI. of France and his queen murdered.
  - 1794. Robespierre, Danton, and Marat in authority. Reign of Terror in France.
  - 1795. Poland ceases to exist as a separate nation. War of France with most of the powers of Europe.
  - 1796. Napoleon Buonaparte appointed commander of the French army in Italy.
  - 1798. Rebellion in Ireland. Buonaparte in Egypt. Nelson's victory at the Battle of the Nile.
  - 1800. Buonaparte First Consul. Battle of Marengo.
  - 1801. Legislative union of Great Britain and Ireland. Peace of Luneville between France and Austria.
  - 1802. Peace of Amiens between France and England.
  - 1803. The Peace of Amiens broken.
  - 1804. Buonaparte crowned Emperor of the French, Dec. 2nd; makes great preparations for an invasion of England, but gives up the plan and marches to Austria.
  - 1805. Napoleon enters Vienna. Defeats the united Russians and Austrians at Austerlitz. Peace of Presburg. Nelson totally defeats the French fleet at Trafalgar, but is himself killed.
  - 1806. Napoleon defeats the Prussians at the battle of Jena. The German empire dissolved, and the Confederation of the Rhine formed. Napoleon declared Protector.
  - 1807. Defeat of the Russians by Napoleon. Peace of Tilsit. Napoleon founds the kingdom of Westphalia. The king and royal family of Portugal fly to Brazil.



- A. D.
- 1808. Deposition of the King of Spain, and appointment of a brother of Napoleon in his stead.
  - 1809. Austria declares war against France, and Napoleon a second time enters Vienna as a conqueror. Napoleon excommunicated. Pope Pius VII. made prisoner. The Papal States and Holland declared parts of France. A British army sent to Lisbon.
  - 1810. Napoleon marries Maria Louisa, daughter of the Emperor of Austria. Forms a coalition of European states against England.
  - 1811. The Prince of Wales appointed Regent of England. The French empire now comprises France, Italy, Switzerland, States of the Rhine, Holland, Spain, and North of Germany.
  - 1812. Napoleon invades Russia with an immense army. Burning of Moscow. Retreat of the French. Defeat on the Beresina. Napoleon returns to Paris without his army.
  - 1813. Battle of Leipsic. Defeat of the French. Flight of Napoleon. Battle of Hanau.
  - 1814. Entrance of the allied armies of England, Russia, and Germany into Paris. Napoleon deposed and sent to Elba. Louis XVIII. becomes king of France. Peace with England. Poland made over to the Emperor of Russia. Spanish-American colonies declare themselves independent. Neutrality of Switzerland guaranteed.
  - 1815. Napoleon returns from Elba, and proceeds directly to Paris. Louis XVIII. escapes. Battle of Waterloo (18th June). Napoleon defeated, and sent as prisoner to St. Helena. General peace in Europe. Establishment of the Holy Alliance, and German Confederation.
  - 1816. Bombardment of Algiers by Admiral Lord Exmouth.
  - 1820. Death of King George III., and accession of George IV., who had long been Regent.
  - 1821. Death of Napoleon at St. Helena. Revolt of the Greeks against the Turks.
  - 1822. The Cortes revolution in Spain suppressed by the French, and Ferdinand VII. restored to his throne. Brazil declared independent.
  - 1824. Death of Louis XVIII. of France. Accession of Charles X.

- A. D.
1825. Death of the Emperor Alexander of Russia. Accession of Nicholas.
1826. Insurrection of the Janissaries in Constantinople. They are abolished.
1827. The English, French, and Russians burn the Turkish fleet at Navarino.
1828. War between Russia and Turkey. Don Miguel in Portugal.
1829. The Russians advance to Adrianople.
1830. Death of King George IV. Accession of William IV. The French conquer Algiers. Revolution in France. Expulsion of Charles X. Louis Philippe of Orleans ascends the throne. Revolt of the Belgians. Separation of Belgium from Holland.
1831. The Austrians occupy Italy. Russians storm Warsaw. Asiatic cholera breaks out in Europe.
1832. The Turco-Egyptian war in Syria. English Reform Bill passed.
1833. Otho of Bavaria appointed king of Greece. Don Miguel driven out of Portugal. An act passed for abolishing slavery throughout the British colonies.
1834. Civil war in Spain.
1836. Death of King William IV. Accession of Queen Victoria, June 20th.
1837. Revolt in Canada.
1845. Failure of the potato crop in Ireland. Great distress.
1846. Repeal of the Corn Laws.
1848. Revolution in France. King Louis Philippe escapes to England. A republic proclaimed. Louis Napoleon Bonaparte chosen President. Revolution in Austria. The emperor abdicates. Revolution in the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom. War between Austria and Sardinia. Revolution in Hungary. Kossuth president. Revolution in Prussia. Insurrection in Baden. German National Assembly. Archduke John regent. Revolution in Denmark. Rising of the duchies of Schleswig-Holstein.
1849. Battle of Novara. Venice bombarded. Russians enter Hungary. War between Germany and Denmark. Armistice of Berlin.
1850. Peace between Denmark and Germany.

- A.D.
1851. Re-establishment of the German Diet. War with the Caffres in South Africa. Queen Victoria opens the Great Exhibition (May 1). First discovery of gold in Australia.
1852. Death of the Duke of Wellington. Louis Napoleon proclaimed Emperor of the French (Dec. 2), by the title of Napoleon III.
1853. The Caffre war concluded. Alliance between England and France for the protection of Turkey against Russia. War declared. Entrance of the French and English fleets into the Dardanelles. The Russians destroy the Turkish fleet at Sinope.
1854. English and French armies proceed to Russia. Land at Gallipoli (April 5). Battle of the Alma (in the Crimea), Sept. 20. First attack on Sebastopol (Oct. 17.) Battle of Balaklava (Oct. 25.) Battle of Inkerman (Nov. 5.)
1855. Death of the Emperor Nicholas of Russia (March 2.) Fall of Sebastopol (Sept. 10.)
1856. Treaty of Peace with Russia signed at Paris in April.  
War with China.
1857. Mutiny in India against the English power.
1858. Capture of Lucknow.  
English empire in India saved.  
Supreme authority in India transferred to the crown of England.
1859. War between France and Austria.  
After two months' hostilities, peace concluded at Villa Franca.

## TABULAR VIEW OF THE MOST IMPORTANT INVENTIONS AND DISCOVERIES.

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- B. C.
- 2700. Hunting. Breeding and rearing of cattle.
  - 2400. Discovery of the ploughshare.
  - 2300. Cultivation of vineyards and gardens.
  - 2200. Olive oil. Flour.
  - 2100. The art of preparing food by fire. Spinning.  
Weaving. Sewing.
  - 2000. Purple dye. Glass. Smelting and forging.
  - 1900. Spears. Swords. Slings. Shields. Bows. Arrows.  
Horsemanship.
  - 1800. Stone-cutting. Stamping money.
  - 1700. Writing in letters. Locks at the Lake of Moëris.
  - 1600. Pyramids. Caravans. Navigation. Observation  
of the solar year.
  - 1500. Obelisks.
  - 1400. Vapour baths of the Assyrians.
  - 1300. Armour.
  - 1200. Measurement of squares and angles. Pottery.  
Ship masts.
  - 1100. Carving in ivory. Embroidery in gold.
  - 1000. Standing armies. Earliest poetry.
  - 800. Silver coin. Alphabetical writing.
  - 700. Anchors. Eclipse of the Moon calculated.
  - 500. Sounding-lead. Burning-glass.
  - 400. The Greek Phalanx.
  - 300. Roman aqueducts. Via Appia. Lighthouses.  
Chinese wall. Fire-engines. Water-Clocks.  
Press. Archimedæan screw. Catapult.
  - 200. Paving of roads. Bread.
  - 100. Cherry-trees in Italy. Mosaic. Painting on wax.  
Soap.

# xxiv TABULAR VIEW OF INVENTIONS, ETC.

- A. D.
- 100. Opium. Glass polishing.
  - 300. Coloured glass windows. Wine in Germany.
  - 400. Saw-mills. Street lighting in Antioch. Saddles.
  - 500. Hydrostatic balance. Bells in churches.
  - 600. Silk-worms in Europe. Floating-mills. Hops.  
Stirrups. Sugar brought to Europe A. D. 625.
  - 700. Pens made from quills. Glass made in England.  
Schools of learning founded by Saracens.
  - 800. Paper made from cotton. Tapestry. Water-wheels.
  - 900. Cultivation of the fields and gardens in Germany.  
German books.
  - 1000. Mining in the Harz Mountains. Fulling Mills.
  - 1100. Windmills. Watch wheels. Tournaments. Glass  
windows in England. Musical notes.
  - 1200. Sugar-cane in Sicily. Arabic numerals.
  - 1300. Spectacles. Looking-glasses. Striking clocks.  
Mariner's compass. Gunpowder.
  - 1400. Wood-carving. Paper made from rags. Turret  
clocks. Pins.
  - 1500. Printing. Muskets. Felt hats. Carriages. Hops  
brought to England.
  - 1600. Pocket watches. Gun locks. Pistols. Knitting.  
Sealing-wax. Wafers. Stocking weaving. Camera  
obscura. Pendulum. Telescopes. Salt works.  
Speaking trumpets.
  - 1700. Discovery of the circulation of the blood. Laws of  
electricity. Course of comets. Tea brought from  
China. Microscope. Thermometer. Barometer.  
Air-pump. Inoculation. Telegraph. Air-balloons.  
Spinning-Jenny, (1767.)
  - 1800. Steam-boats. Gas-lights. Chronometers. Railroads.  
Locomotive engines. Photography. Chloroform.  
Electric telegraph. Submarine telegraph.

# COMPENDIUM OF UNIVERSAL HISTORY.

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## CHAPTER I.

### WHAT WE LEARN FROM HISTORY.

AMONGST the generations that have passed away before our time, there have lived many remarkable persons, illustrious for their good or infamous for their evil deeds, who have experienced various vicissitudes of fortune. The world has been the scene of memorable achievements, and of the rise and fall of mighty empires; wild regions have been colonised and cultivated by the industry of man, and flourishing cities overthrown by his violence, and we trace with wonder the links of that mysterious chain of causes and effects by which all these events are connected. Many arrangements in our present economy, both civil and domestic, were unknown to our forefathers; many of the improvements in agriculture, manu-

factures, and the fine arts, now familiar, have been developed and brought to perfection only by slow degrees. Now, it is the province of History to transmit an account of such only of these characters, customs, and events as are most important, for to record them all would be neither practicable nor useful; and even of what really is important, we find an immense mass. We term everything important which has exercised an extensive influence for good or evil, whether in itself at first apparently trivial,—as, for example, the invention of the magnetic needle, of the art of printing, or of gunpowder,—or the result of combined causes long in operation.

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## CHAP II.

### THE CREATION OF THE WORLD.

“IN the beginning,” we learn, “God created the heaven and the earth; but the earth was without form and void.” Land and water were undivided, and no plant or living thing had yet existence: gradually the land and water became divided, and by the action of subterraneous fires abysses were hollowed out in which the waters collected and formed seas. Hard or hardened bodies, petrified reptiles, fishes, and sea plants were deposited in successive strata. Rocks rose up,

which, like the bones of the human body, formed the skeleton of the earth, and the solid land collected round these rocks, which served as a support for it, so that neither sea nor tempest could entirely detach the soil from them. At last apparently a hurricane from the south-west gave our earth its present form. The soil was torn away from the southern hemisphere; and only here and there could rocks resist, and they now form promontories stretching far into the sea: the greater part of the soil was carried to the north-east.

The present form is, however, by no means imperishable, nor destined to last without a change. It is undergoing changes in many parts even at the present hour. The higher grounds are continually sinking, while the lower rise. The sea encroaches upon the land, and, in its turn, retreats and leaves dry ground. Then mighty revolutions are effected by earthquakes; such as the famous earthquake of Lisbon on the 1st of November, A.D. 1755, which not only destroyed the city, but laid waste the surrounding country.

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### CHAP. III.

#### CREATION OF LIVING CREATURES.

THE earth having thus acquired solidity, was endowed by its Creator with a generative power



producing every variety of herb, moss, grass, plant, vegetable, shrub, and tree. Then God created living creatures, and every creeping thing that creepeth upon the earth; beasts of the forest and the plain, birds of the air, and fishes of the sea, each created of its kind to multiply after its kind. And when all things had been created ready for the use of man, God created man himself, gifted with powers of mind to become lord of the creation: "in the image of God created He him." In the beginning, one pair of human creatures were created, Adam and Eve, who were placed in a garden, rich in productions and natural beauty, called Paradise. From this one pair are descended all nations and races that people the earth, however widely they may differ in colour, form, habits, advantages, or mental power.

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## CHAP. IV.

### MODE OF LIFE OF THE FIRST MEN—PASTORAL LIFE AND THE CHASE.

**B. C.** **THE** first of the human race were placed by God  
**4000.** in a pleasant and fruitful spot, probably in the region near the present Cashmere in Asia, where they subsisted on the spontaneous productions of the earth, without any necessity for labour. The fruits of the fig and palm trees satisfied their

hunger and thirst, the leaves served them for a covering, the shady branches for a roof. But God did not place man upon the earth to remain inactive; he has duties and wants that tend to develop the powers of his body, and to discipline the talents of his mind. He is called on to labour, to think, to learn, and to invent. The great phenomena of nature, thunder, storm, and flood, one can imagine, were the first to excite his attention, and reflection prompted him to action. Necessity, however, has been said to be the mother of wisdom. Necessity compelled man to defend himself from the attacks of wild beasts, and thus brought some kind of weapon into requisition; these were, therefore, among the earliest inventions, and doubtless, extremely rude at first, such as the branch of a tree, a young sapling, or a sharpened stone, which, gradually, they learnt the art of forming into clubs, lances, and slings. While men were in the habit of killing or ensnaring wild animals, we can easily imagine they soon tasted the flesh, either from want of other food, or from a natural longing, and probably found it so good, that their weapons of defence were soon used also for attack, as in hunting. The habits of the chase would soon show that some animals had less ferocity than others, and were more easily domesticated; these the hunter tamed and fed; and, seeing that animals could furnish both food and clothing, the hunters soon became herdsmen. Wherever the herdsmen happened to

settle, if food failed, it was easy to break up a mere encampment of tents — the earliest form of artificial dwellings — and to move onwards in quest of fresh pastures. Such tribes of wandering herdsmen were called Nomades; and even at the present day many tribes are found, more especially in Asia, who follow the same wandering course of life.

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## CHAP. V.

### DAWN OF CIVILISATION — AGRICULTURE.

THE wild life of the hunter, and the restless wanderings of shepherd tribes, were by no means favourable to the development of the many brilliant and varied talents divinely implanted in man. The first decisive step in the advancement of the human race was the discovery of agriculture, and this discovery was probably made in different parts of the world at the same time. Under the impulse and guidance of his Creator, observing and reflecting man soon learnt to plant seed in the ground, and expect a crop in due season. We know not, it is true, the authors of these discoveries, but they are deserving of honour as the greatest benefactors of the human race; for agriculture would naturally introduce securer methods of constructing houses, and an improved domestic economy, besides uniting men into societies, things

which are all attended with a most beneficial influence. The agricultural system of early times, no doubt, was very imperfect; the plough, the harrow, the sickle, and the many implements now in general use, were unknown to the first who tilled the ground. The manufacture of these implements in the perfection in which they now exist, was the result of gradual improvement; and there are yet many nations among whom, if not totally unknown, they are still but in a very imperfect state. Even in our country, invention has still a wide sphere for its energies; and in every branch of agricultural science a much higher point may be attained by making fair use of the talents committed to our charge.

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## CHAP VI.

### BREAD—BEER—WINE.

THE system of bread-making at the present day consists in kneading the flour produced by grinding corn. This practice, however, was unknown to the ancients. At first they ate the natural grain, as we eat fruit; then they learnt to soften it in water, and boiled it to a pulp: it was also a common custom of the nations of antiquity to eat the corn roasted. One of the most important inventions that must have preceded the baking of bread is that of mills, which are absolutely necessary

to procure meal. It is true that Moses was acquainted with the mill; but these were merely hand-mills, requiring manual labour. Water-mills were not invented till the commencement of the Christian era, and windmills have only been known since the year A.D. 1100. The more scientific construction of mills has been attained only within these last two hundred years, and there is still much room for improvement. In ancient times, when mills were unknown, the flour was neither so pure nor so fine as it is now. The Greeks and Romans made their flour into a kind of meal pulp, or porridge, which formed part of their daily food. The Israelites kneaded the flour into dough, mixed it with leaven, and made flat thin cakes, baked sometimes among the embers, and sometimes between hot stones, as with rude tribes at the present day. Another very general use of corn now is to make beer; but this commodity is of much later invention. Wine was, no doubt, known much earlier than beer; though it is related of our remotest ancestors, more than 2000 years ago, that they distilled a kind of wine from roasted barley. There is scarcely a people upon earth that has remained contented with water as their exclusive beverage.

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## CHAP. VII.

MEANS OF RETAINING FIRE—COOKING—  
WORKING IN METALS—BUILDING.

THE art of kindling fire was unknown to the earliest of the human race, as it is still to some barbarous tribes. Ignition by lightning, and the fire left smouldering in the touchwood of a rotten trunk, made perhaps the first tinder, in which some observant person endeavoured to preserve a spark. Sometimes fire was first produced by rubbing two pieces of dried wood together, and this method is still practised by many savages. This discovery was of the utmost importance and benefit to mankind. Their food could now be made more agreeable and digestible, and then soon followed the invention of earthenware, cooking utensils, the art of pottery. Next men learned the use of metals, and the art of melting, refining, and rendering them malleable; but copper, and not iron, was the metal in most general use. The art of the smith having thus arisen from a combination of favourable circumstances, tools were manufactured, adapted to the various exigencies of life, and conducing especially to a bolder and more durable style of architecture. In Babylon, but more particularly in Egypt, stone building was brought to the greatest perfection; and immense edifices, more than 4000

years old, still remain, and excite even now the wonder of the world. In point of beauty, however, the most celebrated buildings are those of the Greeks, the works of ages preceding and contemporary with the Christian era; most exquisite specimens of art, from which lessons in architecture have been derived both by past and present generations.

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## CHAP. VIII.

### LANGUAGE—THEORY OF ITS ORIGIN AND FORMATION.

**B. C.** 4000. THE first result of the expansion of man's mind was language. The sensations of pain, pleasure, wonder, and fear probably drew forth involuntary exclamations, similar to those of animals, and like the interjections "Ha!" "Oh!" These expressions of feeling were the earliest form of language. Men heard the cries of animals and imitated them; they heard the rolling of the thunder, the howling of the wind, the roaring of the sea, and the gentle murmurings of rills and rivulets, and made similar sounds with their organs of speech. They further discovered a sympathy between the sensations of the eye and those of the ear. What was dazzling in colour and sharp or shrill in sound produced on the organs of each a similar impression, and therefore

they were expressed by a similar sound. Certain sounds were gradually associated with the surrounding objects and scenery, and the thoughts they awakened ; sounds which bore some resemblance to the sensible impressions derived from the objects with which men were in daily contact.

We can know nothing of the language of our first parents. The most ancient language which is at present known is the Hebrew, as seen in the books of Moses ; and this may differ widely from the language of Adam and Eve. Even the old German, as it was spoken and written only a thousand years ago, in our fatherland, we have considerable difficulty in understanding ; and more than 2000 years must have elapsed between Moses and the first created beings. Besides, Moses did not live in the land of our first parents ; for, as mankind multiplied, and one tribe pressed upon another, necessity compelled them to migrate to different parts of the earth. As then they became acquainted with different objects in different lands, making new discoveries and adopting new customs, we cannot be surprised that all these varieties, added to the innovations of time, caused languages to divide into such a number of branches, that they can with difficulty be traced to the parent stem. It is, however, very remarkable how all these countless languages, with all their countless words, are made up by the combinations of about twenty-four letters ; and yet with what certainty, clearness, and euphony do these words



adapt themselves to the expression of thought, and with how powerful an instrument do they furnish the orator in moving the passions and feelings of his hearers.

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## CHAP. IX.

### GOVERNMENT: THE PATRIARCHAL, MONARCHICAL, AND OTHER FORMS.

WHILE agriculture was yet in its infancy, it became the custom for families to congregate and form communities and villages; and as the father of each family regulates his household, so was it found necessary to appoint some person to regulate the affairs of each society, and, undertaking the duties of father of the greater family, to direct and govern on a more extended scale. Without some such protector and judge, the humble and the weak found themselves at the mercy of the haughty and the strong; and if the community was attacked by wild beasts or some hostile tribe, no leaders would be found, and neither order nor discipline could prevail. Naturally, therefore, the man who was marked for his energy and talent soon found his adherents, who, accustomed to obey him in war or emergency, felt the same dependence on his guidance and protection in more peaceful times. Such a man was Nimrod, the mighty hunter of Holy

Scripture, who was the first to acquire power in the land of Assyria. The man distinguished for wisdom and justice at the board of council or the hall of judgment, soon had numbers who consulted him in their difficulties or disputes, till this referee was gradually raised by his talents to the position of commander, of judge, or of prince. This theory is confirmed by the example of Dejoces, King of the Medes. As to the form of government adopted in the most ancient kingdoms, it was doubtless elective, the king being chosen by the people, or by a council of their appointment; governments were not hereditary, descending from father to son, till a later period. The kingdoms were generally small, and of very limited resources. The first large kingdoms were those of Assyria and Egypt; and in Egypt we find the first regular code of laws upon record. Where the state was of large extent, the prince found assistance necessary, and made choice of the most experienced and prudent of his subjects to advise or to represent him: this is the class of subjects from which aristocracies arose. The form of government in which the legislative and the executive powers are vested in one individual as supreme, is called a despotic monarchy. That form in which the legislative power is shared among the landed proprietors, the noble, or the wealthy, without any recognised head or chief, is called an aristocracy. But where the legislative power is in the people, and the affairs of the state

are determined only by a majority of votes, that government is called a democracy or republic. The happiest form of government, and that which has been the desire of good men in all periods of history, is apparently a vigorous constitutional monarchy, at once limited by wise laws, and with full powers to carry them into execution.

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## CHAP. X.

### UNCERTAINTY OF ANCIENT HISTORY. EGYPT — THE NILE — PYRAMIDS — MUMMIES.

**B.C.** OF the early history of the world we have but  
**2000.** little information, and even that little is not very satisfactory. The earliest times of which our records are by any means authentic, do not date much further back than the year B.C. 2000. All history of an earlier date, if not altogether fictitious, is so blended with fable, that it is difficult even to guess at the truth. India and Egypt, especially the latter, which is a land of many natural wonders, are the only countries that possess earlier monuments of human art.

India, or Hindostan in Southern Asia, between the rivers Indus and Ganges, was in the earliest period of antiquity peopled by a nation far exceeding its contemporaries in culture, but of their

history we have nothing left but a few enigmatical fragments.

Their further advancement was hindered by their division into *castes*, amongst which the priestly caste (the Brahmins, said to be sons of the god Brahma) was predominant, as we still find it at the present day.

They appear to have lived mostly in caves, for we find whole mountains hollowed out into caverns, part of which were temples or tombs, but the majority dwelling-places.

A still more remarkable phenomenon is presented in the history of the Chinese. Although they had, at an early period, made considerable progress and are said to have been acquainted with the compass, gunpowder, the art of printing, and to have had some knowledge of astronomy 2000 years before Christ, their strict separation from all other nations has kept them still at almost the same point of culture.

Egypt, situated in the north-eastern part of Africa, is subject to a periodical inundation of the river Nile, which every summer overflows its banks, and by a slimy deposit manures the land and renders it extremely fertile. The most productive part is in the north, and is called the Delta; this land, however, did not exist in early times, but has gradually accumulated from the sand and the mud which the Nile carries down to the sea.

Besides an abundance of rice and corn, one remarkable production of Egypt is the papyrus reed,

which anciently served as writing material, and gives the name of paper to the composition of rags in present use. But, at the period to which we allude, letters were unknown, and hieroglyphics were used instead. Each word had its particular sign, though its meaning was only known to the priests. The Egyptians manufactured a fine kind of linen called byssus, of great celebrity in early days. Though the overflowing of the Nile tended greatly to the fertility of the soil, yet the slime it left behind produced myriads of noxious insects, and by its baneful exhalations caused a disease called the plague.

This country is exceedingly deficient in timber and in metals; but, as if in compensation, there are extensive quarries of stone on the eastern frontier. Of this stone are composed those mighty edifices called obelisks and pyramids, nearly all of which are upwards of 3000 years old. Obelisks are large columns, quadrangular and culminating to a point, from 50 to 180 feet high, and often of one single stone. Pyramids are enormous structures of square base, ascending to a point from 200 to 800 feet in height, and faced with sloping walls. They are built for the most part of limestone on elevated ground, which forms an island from the fact that by an artificial channel the river flows around it. Above ground as well as below are galleries and chambers used as depositories of embalmed bodies. These bodies were first cleared of all their more corruptible

parts, then steeped in a powerful composition, and afterwards covered with a hardened transparent resinous preparation, and in this state are called mummies. Many mummies are preserved to this day, which are more than 3000 years old.

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## CHAP. XI.

### EGYPTIANS — THE CALENDAR — ANIMAL WORSHIP.

THE ancient Egyptians possessed much valuable skill in the arts, and brought many to great perfection; but their division into castes, and their law, which bound the son to the trade or business of his father, proved powerful checks to advancement. The priests possessed all the learning, and other classes were precluded from its attainment. One division of priests consisted of physicians, and they were not allowed to treat a patient by the symptoms of the disease and their own judgment, but were tied down to certain established and written rules of practice. The lowest caste, and one much despised, was that of the shepherds. The overflowing of the Nile formed an epoch in the Egyptian calendar; these overflows generally returned after 365 days, about the time of the rising of the dog-star. But the Egyptians seem to have taken no account of the time by

B. C.  
2000.

B. C. 1000. which the real solar year exceeded 365 days. The Greeks were the first who adopted an accurate calculation of time. Among the Romans, Julius Cæsar, 46 B.C., arranged the calendar, making three consecutive years contain 365 days each, but making the fourth year a leap year, containing 366 days, because it was then supposed that the solar year contained  $365\frac{1}{4}$  days exactly. But the year in reality consists of 365 days, 5 hours,  $48\frac{1}{4}$  minutes. The consequence of the error was, that the Julian Calendar increased the true time by 45 minutes every fourth year, which, by the year A.D. 1500, caused an error in our reckoning of no less than ten days. Accordingly Pope Gregory XIII. ordered that these ten days should be added, and that for the future, instead of allowing with the Julian Calendar 100 leap years in 400 years, three out of these years should be reckoned as common years, and the leap years in the 400 limited to 97. The Russians have not yet adopted the improved Gregorian Calendar, and are therefore, in their reckoning of time, about twelve days behind us.

The animal worship of the Egyptians is also well worthy of notice. They venerated a bird called the ibis, which resembled the stork; also the cat and the crocodile, and especially a curiously marked breed of oxen called Apis. These they embalmed after death with the same care as the bodies of human creatures. Of the earliest events in the history of the Egyptians we know but

little, because the Egyptians kept themselves <sup>B. C.</sup> quite distinct from all other nations. It was not <sup>700.</sup> till 700 B.C. that they allowed the Grecians to land and to take up their abode and traffic amongst them. Psammeticus was the first Egyptian monarch that admitted them, and with their assistance he conquered the other eleven kings with whom he had previously been on friendly terms, and whom he had joined in constructing the extensive labyrinth leading to the royal sepulchres.

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## CHAP. XII. .

ABRAHAM—JOSEPH—THE ISRAELITES IN  
EGYPT.

ABRAHAM, whom the Jews call the father of their race, while following the occupation of a <sup>B. C.</sup> herdsman, crossed from the further side of the <sup>1929.</sup> Euphrates to the side toward the land of Canaan. The student of Scripture will remember how a grievous famine compelled him to go to Egypt, from which land he returned with considerable possessions, and how he agreed to separate from his kinsman Lot. Lot chose the fruitful vale around Sodom and Gomorrah, which shortly afterwards sank in from the effects of subterranean volcanic fire (for such the secondary cause is supposed to have been), and the place where



B. C. 1920. these cities stood was occupied by a sea, to this day called the Dead Sea. Lot was, however, preserved from the terrible calamity. In those days almost all the nations of the earth worshipped more gods than one; they made molten images, and offered up prayers to beasts, and plants, and the heavenly bodies. But Abraham abhorred the worship of idols, and adhered to the belief in the one true God, who created heaven and earth, and who had shown himself in a wonderful manner the God of his fathers. In Him Abraham believed and trusted, with so firm a faith, that he even made himself ready to offer up his son Isaac when that sacrifice was required of him. But the Lord was pleased to spare Isaac, being satisfied of the piety and faith of his servant Abraham, and requiring no sacrifice but that of a pure heart and a good life.

Israel, the grandson of Abraham, had twelve sons, who, after the custom of their fathers, kept flocks and herds. Of these sons Joseph was the father's favourite, which caused his brothers to envy and to hate him, and ultimately to sell him as a slave to some merchants, who conveyed him to Egypt. Here he was accused of a crime of which he was wholly innocent, and thrown into prison: but by the protection of his Heavenly Father he was enabled to vindicate the purity of his heart, and through his prophetic interpretation of a dream, he was released from prison, and raised to a position second only to that of

Pharaoh himself. By the continued care of Providence, and the foreknowledge vouchsafed <sup>B.C.</sup> 1730. him, he was enabled to save Egypt at a most critical juncture, and to provide for the wants of his own family. In the years of abundance Joseph bought up corn in store for the years of famine which he saw were threatening the land; and when, afterward, it was suffering from this predicted famine, he sold the corn to the Egyptians and surrounding people. Among others who came to Egypt to buy the corn were Joseph's brethren. Joseph recognised them: at first he excited their fears by his stern reception; but when his youngest brother, Benjamin, came down to him, Joseph made himself known to his brethren, and at the same time quieted their apprehensions, for they naturally dreaded the resentment of a brother they had so cruelly injured. Joseph also obtained for his family the fruitful territory of Goshen, that they might dwell near him in the land of Egypt; this occurred about B.C. 1730. After Joseph's death, the Israelites were cruelly oppressed, and at last an order was issued that all their male children should be destroyed. Upon this, Moses, a man wise in all the wisdom of the Egyptians, was mercifully raised up for their deliverance; and when, at last, the rebellious obstinacy of Pharaoh had yielded to the ten plagues of an offended God, Moses led his people miraculously through the Red Sea, and gave them laws received from God himself amidst thunder

**B. C.**  
**1500.** and lightning from Mount Sinai, and by encouraging implicit faith and dependence on their Almighty Father, he sought to procure for his people the abiding protection of an All-wise Providence. Moses also endeavoured to awaken their courage and unite them among themselves by a firm faith in the special protection of Jehovah, and at the same time, by the utmost severity, to restrain the instinctive obstinacy of their unruly wills and inclinations. Moses died before the Israelites entered the promised land; Joshua then became their leader, and the greater part of Canaan yielded to their arms. The Israelites did not all devote themselves to husbandry, as Moses had commanded them; some continued to lead the unsettled life of herdsmen. One tribe, the tribe of Levi, had no separate inheritance, but were distributed among the other tribes, that they might with more advantage discharge the sacred function of the ministry to the children of Israel.

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## CHAP. XIII.

SAMUEL—SAUL—DAVID—JUDAH AND ISRAEL.

THE Israelites still had frequently to carry on war with the original inhabitants of Canaan, especially with the Philistines, who several times conquered them and held them in subjection.

Being dejected and of a capricious and change-<sup>B.C.</sup>  
able character, they sometimes had recourse to <sup>1100.</sup>  
strange gods, and in the season of their despondency they placed not their trust in their Heavenly Father. Then were raised up for their deliverance the Judges and the Prophets, who, under divine inspiration, delivered the people from bondage, and brought them back to the worship of the One true God. One of these Judges was named Samson, a man of miraculous strength, who enabled the Israelites to throw off the yoke of the Philistines, 1150 B.C. After the death of Samson, the people grew faint-hearted, and fell once more under the yoke: then Samuel, another brave Judge and inspired prophet, was vouchsafed them, and he a second time reanimated their courage and repulsed their enemies, 1120 B.C. But as Samuel grew old and new wars were threatening, the people implored him to give them a king. Much against his own convictions, Samuel consented, and Saul was made king, 1100 B.C.\*

Differences soon arose between Saul and Samuel, because Saul was resolved to make himself an absolute monarch, and would not submit to the sacerdotal orders of Samuel. In consequence of this, Samuel secretly anointed David as king, who soon won the hearts of the people by his noble

\* In 1 Samuel, viii., we find Samuel's warning to the people, with a description of the services and homage exacted by oriental monarchs.

**B.C.**  
**1000.** conduct on various occasions. Saul, suspicious and resentful, made several attempts on David's life; yet David, on two occasions, generously spared the life of Saul, when accidentally, as it seemed, at his mercy. Saul, however, had not the heart to preserve an amicable feeling towards David many days together; so David fled from the land, and Saul, after losing a battle with the Philistines, committed suicide.

Under the government of David, 1050 B.C., Judæa was at the zenith of its power: the Philistines were completely subdued, Mount Zion had been recovered, and, by the assistance of the famous workmen of Sidon, a beautiful palace was erected. The Jewish kingdom, hitherto narrowly limited, now extended as far as Egypt and the Euphrates, while its northern boundary was Syria. David was a man far superior, in point of natural endowments, to any of his age and country, and he composed the Psalms to be sung in the service of God. But he was nevertheless guilty of excesses and cruelties, which occasioned a rebellion fomented by his disobedient though favourite son Absalom, who placed himself at the head of a party, and David was obliged to fly from Jerusalem. Absalom, however, was at last defeated and slain while entangled by his long hair in the branches of a tree.

Solomon, who succeeded his father David about B.C. 1000, was inclined to peace; he it was who built the temple of Jerusalem, and added to the

riches of himself and his people by opening a trade with the ports on the Red Sea. But the treasures acquired induced luxury and extravagance, and the people fell back to the worship of idols. The rule of Solomon was found oppressive, and involved severe taxation, which resulted in a revolt; and Solomon, once the proudest and most prosperous of Jewish sovereigns, was obliged to exclaim with a sigh, "All is vanity." His son Rehoboam indeed succeeded him on the throne, but when the people implored him to govern them more mildly than his father had done—he gave them the threatening answer, that his father had chastised them with rods, but he would lash them with scorpions. On this account ten of the tribes renounced their allegiance to him and chose Jeroboam for their king. Two tribes only—those of Judah and Benjamin, remained faithful, and thus Palestine became divided into the two kingdoms of Judah and Israel—the former with Jerusalem for a capital, the latter with Sechem, and subsequently Samaria, and both were after a long continuance of civil wars and repeated returns to idolatry, eventually conquered and made tributary to foreign masters; Israel in the year 720 B.C., and Judah 600 B.C. Nebuchadnezzar carried away the King of Judah and all his nobles for the seventy years of Babylonian captivity. Those who remained in their own country became mingled with heathen nations, and thus arose the Samaritans who worshipped

B.C.  
1000.

<sup>B. C.</sup>  
<sup>530.</sup> sometimes the true God, and sometimes false idols. When the Babylonian empire was destroyed by Cyrus he permitted the Jews to return, which they did in the year 530 B. C., and afterwards rebuilt the Temple of Solomon, which had been levelled with the ground. The temple was afterwards repaired and beautified by Herod, but was destroyed at the taking of Jerusalem by the Romans, A. D. 70, "*not one stone being left upon another*;" and the Jews were scattered among all the nations of the earth. Still it is wonderful how the Jews have preserved their nationality as a "peculiar people," amidst all the variety of nations with which they have been doomed to sojourn.

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## CHAP. XIV.

### NAVIGATION — THE PHENICIANS — THE COMPASS.

ONE of the most intricate works of modern art is a large merchant-vessel or a man-of-war, with her various decks, cabins, masts, rudder, sails, and anchors, and complicated machinery, to be steered by the stars and the little compass-needle; yet the art of ship-building has probably been perfected from very small beginnings; a floating trunk or hollow tree may first have suggested to some observing and reflective mind the idea of

trusting to the deep, and the first conveyances contrived by art were most likely mere rafts and coracles covered with skins. Oars, at first, were neither known nor thought of, but men committed themselves to the waves, guided only by the current. And even when oars were invented, consisting merely of rough poles by which to propel the boat or raft, still sails remained a long time unknown; and, indeed, in early times sails were less indispensable, because voyages were only made along the coast. In that primitive state of things, a stone attached to a rope, and thrown from the vessel to the land, answered the purpose of the anchor of modern times.

The first nation that ever ventured out of sight of land, and navigated the open sea, were the Phœnicians, who probably introduced the use of sails; they were, likewise, the first people who directed their course by observations of the stars. The art of navigation, however, till within these last 500 years, remained in a most imperfect state; for although the sail was invented, and the stars observed for their guidance, it was only on rare occasions that men would dare to commit themselves to the open sea, for its dangers remained in all their terror till the invention of the compass, founded, as it is, on the observation that a magnetic needle invariably points north and south, or nearly so, and thus enables the navigator, even in the densest atmosphere, to form some kind of judgment of the course to steer. The needle was



first known in Europe about 500 years ago. Of the ships of the present day, those built by the English and the Americans surpass all others, both in number and tonnage.

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## CHAP. XV.

### COMMERCE — MONEY — ARISTOCRACIES.

THE stimulus that navigation gave to commerce was very considerable. In the earliest ages, the only form of trade or commerce was the exchange of commodities, of which one man had too much and another too little for his requirements; and the price of every article was determined by the demand. But when this exchange began to be more common, it was found necessary to establish some common measure by which goods might be compared, and thus marked with a standard and recognised value. Goods were measured by the ell, the fathom, and the ton. Weight was determined at first merely by the hand, afterwards by a rude kind of beam; for our weighing-machines are not among the oldest of our inventions. Now it often happened that the buyer had not to give the exact commodity which the seller most wanted in exchange: it was therefore found necessary to fix on some one commodity to which all persons attached an equal value, and then to determine

the price of goods by reference to this one uniformly prized commodity. This was the origin of money. To represent this common measure, different means were adopted in different places; such as shells, wood, salt, or fish: but generally metals were used, — first copper, and afterwards gold and silver. Originally the common custom was to weigh the metals at every purchase; but this proving tiresome and inconvenient, some dealers kept the pieces of metal ready weighed, stamped with the figure of any particular animal of which the piece happened to be the price. At a later period the king caused his likeness to be stamped on the coin of his realm. Two thousand years ago the Germans were wholly unacquainted with money; and about one thousand years have elapsed since any stamped coinage came into use among them.\* By degrees towns and villages learned to traffic with each other; caravans, and at a later period, ships were used to convey disposable produce and works of art from place to place, thus establishing communications between the most distant parts of the then known world. Through means of commerce and navigation we became acquainted with China in the far east, with Peru in the west, Greenland in the north, and the Cape of Good Hope in the south. The diffusion of commerce gives a stimulus to the arts,

B. C.  
1000.

\* The German dollar, or *thaler*, a coin in general circulation, was so called from Joachim's *Thal* or valley, where they were first made.

tending greatly to the improvement of machinery and manufactures. Emulation and self-interest excite competition in the introduction of any new inventions that contribute either to ornament or to cheapness. Too often, however, the love of gain tempts men to deceitful and inhuman practices. Hence arose the horrors of the slave-trade, which, to man's shame be it said, is not yet wholly abandoned, though the English have abolished it since A.D. 1808. It is the nature of commerce to bring riches; riches encourage luxurious habits and a love of splendour, and heap honours and rewards on all who excel in the beauties of art; but gradually men become enervated in mind, and the riches they imagine for their happiness, too often prove their ruin. Certain private persons acquire great wealth, and, through these means, command influence; this wealth descends from father to son; and in these instances particular families defy all competition, and obtain a monopoly in the commercial world, as well as great political power. The consequence is, that in almost all countries where commerce unduly prevails, powerful aristocracies spring up, by which the poorer classes are liable to considerable oppression.

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## CHAP. XVI.

THE PHœNICIANS — ANCIENT COMMERCE —  
TYRE AND SIDON.

THE most ancient commercial people distinguished in the history of former times were the Phœnicians. Their country consisted of a strip of barren and sandy land on the coast of Syria, a hundred miles long, and not more than ten or twelve broad. The sea and the cedars of Lebanon must have offered facilities for navigation, and the poverty of their soil have compelled the people to subsist by trade and industry. Their capital, Sidon, in Canaan, was a frequented port, when the Jews entered that country; it must, therefore, have been built 2000 years before Christ, if not earlier. B.C.  
2000.

They first traded with the island of Cyprus, though commerce in those days was nearly allied to piracy. They next opened a trade round the coast of Asia Minor, and gradually extended their voyages through the Dardanelles into the Black Sea, and had dealings in the West with the people of Greece. To protect and extend their commercial enterprises the Phœnicians founded many colonies. From Greece and Asia Minor they were ultimately driven by the Greeks, who were themselves becoming a commercial nation; yet, not being in a position to procure

**a.c.** for themselves all the commodities in which the  
**600.** Phœnicians traded, the Greeks could not entirely dispense with their commerce. On the northern coast of Africa the commerce of the Phœnicians was of longer continuance. It was here that they founded their far-famed colony of Carthage about the year 888 B. C., and, conquering almost the whole of the opposite island of Sicily, sailed from thence as far as Spain, called in the Bible Tarshish, where they found silver in great abundance. They even sailed round the south-west point of Spain and came to England, where they found tin; and at last to the northern coast of Germany, where they procured amber, which in ancient times was more rare, and therefore more precious than gold. They are supposed also to have circumnavigated Africa, but these voyages to England, Spain, and Germany, they cunningly endeavoured to keep a profound secret. The sailors invented stories to mislead inquirers; and if any vessel endeavoured to observe and track out their route, they would purposely deviate from their proper course; so that, till 600 B.C., they were the only nation that had undertaken such distant voyages. But it was not only by sea that the Phœnicians carried on their commercial enterprises. Their caravans traded to the north and to the east; while Arabia, in the south, supplied cinnamon, spices, ivory, and gold,—commodities that the Arabians had purchased from the merchants of other nations. One part of the busi-

ness of the Phœnicians was to be the mere carriers <sup>B.C.</sup> of merchandise between one country and another; 700. but they had also most extensive factories in Tyre, Sidon, and other cities. Their principal article of manufacture was glass; but they also prepared and dyed linen and woollen stuffs with the beautiful purple of the Murex. Besides the accidental discovery of glass and of their purple dye, they are said to have invented letters (which the Greeks certainly obtained from them), as well as weights and measures, coinage, and the art of arithmetic. Thus Sidon first became a flourishing city, and then Tyre. These were the two wealthiest cities of the age: from them came every fabric of beautiful and elaborate texture. The Phœnicians built splendid palaces, and every land brought them its treasures. Such is the account given by the prophet Isaiah, and yet more minutely by Ezekiel, of Tyre and Sidon, as they existed about the year 700 B.C.; accompanied, however, with a solemn prophecy of their approaching destruction, which was accomplished in their fall in the year 600 before the Christian era. Sidon did not long resist the arms of Nebuchadnezzar, the mighty Babylonian conqueror, though Tyre did not fall under his power till after a siege of thirteen years, and, when it was taken, nothing but empty walls received the victor; for nearly all the inhabitants had escaped to a neighbouring island a short distance from the shore: here they again established themselves; and their settlement

B.C.  
330. in the island was no less renowned than their ill-fated capital. In the year 333 B.C. another ambitious conqueror, Alexander the Great, came from Macedonia; and though the Tyrians defended themselves with the utmost ingenuity and valour for the space of seven months, they were at length obliged to surrender. The city was utterly destroyed, and all who escaped the sword were sold into slavery. This conquest gave Alexander full command of the commerce of Egypt, extending to every part of the then known world.

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## CHAP. XVII.

### THE SEVEN GREATEST EMPIRES IN THE HISTORY OF THE WORLD.

B. C.  
2000. THE following empires have, in different ages, held the sovereignty of the greater part of the world —

*First*, the Assyrian empire, commencing about 2000 B.C. This empire was dissolved in the year 888 B.C., and divided into the kingdoms of Assyria, Babylon, and Media. Nebuchadnezzar, king of Babylon, conquered the other kingdoms, and raised his land to the zenith of its renown, 666 B.C. All these kingdoms were afterwards conquered, and formed,

*Secondly*, the Persian empire under Cyrus,

555 B.C. This kingdom was overthrown by Alexander, who, by extensive conquests, formed, B. C.  
500.

*Thirdly*, the Macedonian empire, 333 B.C. This empire, after the death of Alexander, was divided into four small kingdoms. These, however, gradually gave place to the most extensive empire of ancient times ; for,

*Fourthly*, the Roman empire, at the time of our Saviour's birth, comprehended several countries utterly unknown to earlier conquerors. About 400 A.D., the Roman empire was divided into the Eastern and the Western empires. In the year 476, the Western empire was overthrown by the nations of Germany, and various small states were formed out of it. A. D.  
1.

*Fifthly*, Charlemagne, after extensive conquests, founded the Frank empire, the mightiest in Europe. At the same time, the Mahomedan empire of Arabia flourished in Asia and Africa, but neither of these long retained its power. The Frank empire fell into confusion after the death of Charlemagne, through the incompetency of its governors, and the ambition of the petty princes who seized upon the several provinces. The Arabian empire was destroyed by the Turks. One of their hordes conquered Jerusalem, and held the Holy City against the Crusaders from 1095 to 1250. Other hordes crossed over to Europe and conquered Constantinople, A.D. 1453. About the year 1200 Gengis Khan founded the great Mongol empire, which, under his sons A. D.  
800.



A. D. and grandsons extended from the frontiers of  
1400. Germany to the Chinese sea. Its farthest extent was attained under Timour, or Tamerlane, but the empire fell asunder under their feeble successors.

A. D. *Sixthly*, the Spanish-Austrian monarchy under  
1520. Charles V., in the year 1520, rose through its power and extent of territory far above all the nations of Europe. From the year 1600 it began to decline; and from 1650 A.D., France by the policy of Louis XIV., attained a high and very commanding position, but only preserved it to the year 1700. Since that time Russia has had the largest territory in Europe, and England been the mistress of the sea, while France, Austria, and Prussia, by their well-disciplined armies, combined to maintain the balance of power among the sovereigns of Europe. This balance, however, was for a short time suspended, when,

A. D. *Seventhly*, France, under Napoleon, gained the  
1804. ascendancy among the Continental states, though England retained the dominion of the sea; the great battles, however, fought between 1813 and 1815 A.D., destroyed the power which France had thus won by the sword, and re-established the balance of power as before.

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## CHAP. XVIII.

## THE EMPIRE OF NINEVEH.

NINUS, who built Nineveh, was the founder of the great Assyrian kingdom 2000 B.C. Ninus left at his death a son named Ninyas, and a wife, Semiramis. Semiramis was a woman of masculine character, and, assuming male attire, she pretended she was Ninyas, and was thus enabled to hold the sceptre for several years, till her government was so fully established as to justify her in declaring to her people that they were governed by a queen under an assumed name. Semiramis adorned Babylon with beautiful edifices, and commenced the far-famed Hanging Gardens; she also increased the grandeur and convenience of other towns, and, extending her empire by repeated conquests, even penetrated into the country beyond the Indus. Her son Ninyas was of an effeminate character, and history gives the same account of his successors, till Sardanapalus, the last of his family, being deposed by three of his generals, set fire to his seraglio and all the treasures of his palace, and perished in the flames. His three generals divided the kingdom of Nineveh, and thence arose the three several powers of Assyria, Babylon, and Media. Amongst these, the Babylonian, under Nebuchadnezzar,

b. c. 600. became, about the year 600 B.C. the most powerful, but was afterwards, with the two others, incorporated into the Medio-Persian Empire about 555 B.C.

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## CHAP. XIX.

### EMPIRE OF THE MEDES — CYRUS — SOLON AND CRÆSUS—THE PERSIAN EMPIRE.

ASTYAGES, king of Media, had a daughter of whom the soothsayers had foretold, that she was destined to give birth to a son who would be master of the whole of Asia. To prevent this consummation, Astyages gave his daughter in marriage to a Persian of very inferior rank, and when she was delivered of a son, he gave the child to a servant of the court named Harpagus, with instructions to put the infant to death. Harpagus entrusted the child to a shepherd that he might expose it to perish in the fields, but this shepherd had the humanity to take it home to his wife, who reared it up as her own child. Now, it happened one day, that some shepherds' boys were playing a certain game, in which Cyrus was chosen to play king, and as one of the party, who chanced to be the son of a man of some little consequence, disobeyed the said king's orders, Cyrus commanded the boy to be whipped. This boy's father was offended and made com-

plaint to Astyages, who directed Cyrus to be <sup>B.C.</sup> brought before him; recognised him as his grand-<sup>585</sup>son, and was pleased with the honest independence and boldness of the boy's character; he punished the disobedience of Harpagus by causing all his children to be put to death. Astyages now allowed his grandson to be educated in Persia, and when, after a few years he returned to the court of Astyages, he proved so agreeable and clever a companion, that the king was not satisfied unless Cyrus was in constant attendance in his court. The result was, that Cyrus became popular and secured the affections and interest of all classes, both high and low, and Harpagus, whose children had been so cruelly murdered by Astyages, seized on this opportunity of exciting the ambition of Cyrus at once to revenge the wrongs of his Persian countrymen and to throw off the yoke of the Medes. Cyrus was fired with the thoughts of the enterprise, and in the year 555 B.C., dethroned his grandfather Astyages, and raised himself to the high dignity of King of the Medes and Persians.

In one of the adjoining provinces, Lydia, there was a king named Croesus, whose wealth was so great, that "as rich as Croesus," has passed into a proverb. This Croesus, in the pride of his wealth and presuming on the greatness of his power, ventured to make war against Cyrus, but was defeated and taken prisoner. It is related of Croesus, that at the very moment he was standing

**B. C.**  
**530.** on the funeral pile, on the point of being burned to death, he recollected a particular admonition he once received from Solon, the wise man of Greece, who had declared that he could not pronounce him happy on account of his riches ; and the thought of this saying caused Cræsus to call aloud the name of Solon. Cyrus was struck with the circumstance, and being curious to learn how the name of Solon should be of such importance as to recur at so awful a moment, gave Cræsus time to descend from the pile to explain the reason. Then Cræsus repeated to Cyrus the words of Solon, "Thou desirest to be called happy, but the gods often shower benefits upon a man, and then snatch them suddenly away to plunge him into misery far greater than his happiness. No mortal can be called happy until his death." These reflections led Cyrus to meditate on the mutability of human affairs, and the result was, that he not only gave Cræsus his life, but retained him as his friend ever after.

Not long after the conquest of Lydia, Cyrus sent his generals against the Grecian colonies on the western coast of Asia Minor, which did not long withstand the overwhelming forces brought against them. Cyrus himself, in the meanwhile, marched eastward and took the mighty city of Babylon, whence he allowed the captive Jews to return to Canaan. He met his death in a sanguinary battle against the Massagetæ (530 B.C.), and Tourgris, their queen, is said to have plunged

his head into a vessel filled with blood, saying — B. C. 550.  
“Now thou insatiable one! satiate thyself with blood!” Cyrus had a son, named Cambyses, who conquered Egypt. Cambyses was succeeded by Darius, who carried his victorious arms beyond the Indus in the east, and over the Hellespont through Thrace to the Danube in the north-west, so now the great Persian empire extended on the west to the Danube, and on the east to the Indus.

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## CHAP. XX.

## THE STORY OF CYRUS.

THE following story of the birth of Cyrus, and how the predictions concerning him were accomplished by the very means taken to defeat them, as related by Herodotus, throws so much light on the manners and customs of the times, that it has been thought advisable to introduce it.

Mandane, daughter of Astyages, king of the Medes, had one night a very wonderful dream, representing that the capital and all Asia was overflowed with water. The king consulted the interpreters of dreams among the magi, who explained the dream to portend some overwhelming calamity to the empire of the Medes. In order, therefore, to be secure from any powerful enemy in connection with his daughter, the

king chose for her husband a man of peaceable disposition, named Cambyses, a Persian; for the Persians he considered very far inferior to the Medes in energy and spirit. And now the king was alarmed by a second dream; he seemed to discern a vine shooting from the body of his daughter, and extending its branches over all Asia. Once more the magi were consulted, and once more the magi foreboded evil, declaring that the issue of his daughter should one day usurp his throne. Soon Mandane bore a son; but her chamber was surrounded by guards, and the infant conveyed to the king. Harpagus, the trusty minister of Astyages, was quickly summoned to the royal presence. "Harpagus," said the king, "fail not to execute the service I command; presume not to entrust others with the office, or deceiving thy king thou wilt bring ruin on thine own head. Take this child, Mandane's son, carry him to thine home, kill him, and bury him as thou shalt best devise." Harpagus replied, he had ever been a faithful servant—would never be guilty of the crime of disobedience—it was his to do his sovereign's pleasure. Then receiving in his arms the babe, arrayed in costly robes, he carried it to his own house, and told his wife, with many tears, what the king had enjoined, and he his servant was required to perform. "What, then," said she, "do you intend to do?" "Not certainly to obey Astyages," replied Harpagus, "in the literal manner of his command, though

he were yet more outrageous and cruel than he is — my hand shall not do the murder. Astyages is old, and has no son to succeed him : and should the throne pass to his daughter, what punishment may I not expect for the murder of her child."

Thus resolved, he sent for one of the royal herdsmen, who kept his flocks at the foot of certain hills infested with wild beasts, and, therefore, the better suited for his design. Mitradates was the herdsman's name ; his cattle grazed in the pastures that lie under the hills north of Ecbatana, towards the Euxine, for this part of Media is mountainous, wild, and woody, whereas the rest of the country is plain and level. This herdsman immediately went to Harpagus, who thus addressed him : —

"Astyages, the king, commands thee to take this infant, and to lay it down amidst the wildest of your mountain crags, and there leave it to die ; he has commanded me to add, that shouldest thou dare to disobey him, and form any plan to save the child, a death by the most cruel tortures is thy doom ; my duty it is to see this put in execution."

Mitradates, with these words, took the infant, and returned to his cottage, where he found that his wife, in his absence, had been prematurely delivered of a still-born son. The herdsman all day had been concerned at leaving his wife, and his wife alarmed because Harpagus so hurriedly had commanded the presence of her husband.



"Wife," said he "I have been to the city, where the deeds I have seen and heard—would I had never heard them—would they had never been doomed to befall our master. All the family of Harpagus I found deep in grief and lamentations, and on entering the house what was my sorrow to behold an infant dressed in gold and the richest colours, panting and crying on the floor, and Harpagus ordered me to take up the child, to set off with all haste and expose it amidst the wildest of our mountain crags and the haunts of wild beasts—and this under the penalty of the direst vengeance of the king, should I dare to disobey. At first, astonished as I was to see the gold and the splendour of the robe, I had no suspicion of the child's high birth; but the servant who put the child into my hands and bore me company out of the city, assured me it was the son of Mandane, the king's daughter, and that it was the king's own orders that it should be put to death."

With these words, the herdsman uncovered the infant and showed it to his wife, who, seeing its beauty and fair proportions, threw herself at her husband's knees and entreated him, with tears in her eyes, not to carry that cruel order into execution. He assured her he had no choice—Harpagus would be sure to see that the deed was done, having been threatened with death if it should fail. "Since, then," said she, "you must expose some infant, and the spies of Har-

pagus must see the orders carried into effect, take <sup>B. C.</sup> my poor still-born babe, leave him upon the hill <sup>585.</sup> instead of the other, and we will rear up Mandane's child as our own ; for thus we shall consult our own safety without prejudice to our master : my child that is dead will have a royal sepulchre, and the surviving infant be saved from an untimely death."

The herdsman resolved that this was the wisest course, so delivered the infant to his wife ; and, having put all the rich apparel on his own dead child, he carried it, in the same basket, to the wildest part of the mountains ; and some of the guards of Harpagus, having formal notice from the herdsman, witnessed that the supposed child of Mandane was dead, and Harpagus had it buried under his own observation.

The son of Mandane was reared up with the name of Cyrus, and how he was discovered by the king to be his grandson, has been already stated, and we pass on to the vengeance taken by the king on Harpagus.

The herdsman, being questioned, confessed his share of the benevolent fraud ; whereupon the king, highly incensed with Harpagus, sent his guards to bring him to the palace. When Harpagus came, the very sight of the herdsman convinced him that concealment was impossible ; so he told the king how he had endeavoured at once to obey his prince's orders and spare himself the guilt of killing a royal infant ; how he had

B. C.  
585. compelled the herdsman to expose the child on the mountain, had proofs of the exposure and the death, and had buried the child with his own hands.

The king concealed his resentment at the time, and even affected to be glad that the child's life was spared, "for," said he, "I suffered a great deal about the child, and bitterly felt the reproaches of my daughter; so, since fortune has been more favourable to me than I could have hoped, send me your son to bear Cyrus company, and then come yourself to my supper; for I am resolved to sacrifice to the deities, who have a claim on my gratitude on so great an occasion."

Harpagus, delighted that all should end so well, and he have the honour to be invited to the feast of joy, sent his son, a boy of about thirteen, to the palace, and told his wife, with the greatest satisfaction of all that had transpired. But no sooner had his son reached the palace, than he was barbarously killed and cut in pieces by order of the king; some parts of his flesh were roasted and some boiled, and all kept in readiness to be served at table. When the hour had arrived, and Harpagus and all the company were seated at supper, the tables before the king and all the rest of his guests were supplied with joints of mutton; but before Harpagus was placed the body of his son, except the head, the hands, and the feet, which were covered over in a basket near the wretched father. When he had made a hearty

neal, the king asked him how he liked the meat? to which Harpagus replied, he had never tasted anything more delicious in his life: whereupon the officers as already arranged, brought the basket with the head, hands, and feet of his son, and told him to take his choice of whatever he liked best. Harpagus uncovered the basket and looked upon the remains of his own murdered son, but without betraying any emotion or sign of resentment; and when the king asked if he knew what venison he had been eating, he said he was perfectly well aware, but he could not fail to feel pleasure in anything that gave pleasure to his king. Then, collecting the mangled parts, he went home and buried them.

This was the barbarous treatment that rankled in the heart of Harpagus till it found vent in an insurrection, in which he induced Cyrus to join the Persians against the throne and the empire of the cruel Astyages, King of the Medes.

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## CHAP. XXI.

### THE GREEKS.

THE first inhabitants of Greece came, according to tradition, from Asia, about the year 2000 B.C. They were mere rude savages, who had no

B. C.  
2000. habitations, and subsisted on roots, and the spontaneous productions of the earth. Their first ideas of religion and of civilisation, were brought to them by Cadmus from Phœnicia, Pelops from Asia Minor, Cecrops and Danaus from Egypt—but their early history is entirely interwoven with fables about gods and heroes.

About the year 1300 B. C., they appear to have joined in a common expedition to Colchis, under the guidance of Jason in the ship *Argo*—the purpose of the voyage being according to the story to fetch a certain “Golden Fleece.”\*

A more important expedition was that of the united Greek tribes to Asia Minor. Paris, a son of the Trojan king Priam, had carried off the Spartan queen Helen, and her husband, Menelaus, thereupon called all the warriors of Greece to arms. The Trojans however defended themselves bravely for ten years, until at length their city was taken by a stratagem of Ulysses, and destroyed (1184 B. C.) The tradition is that he had a great hollow wooden horse made, in which he concealed a party of the Greeks—and as this was placed near the walls of their city the Trojans took it in. In the night the armed men got out of it and helped in their countrymen who had pretended to retire, but now returned and took the city, to which they set fire. After the

\* Probably the gold obtained by washing the sands of a river, and preserved by the people of the country in the skins of their sheep.—Ed.

victorious Greeks returned home, a sanguinary strife took place amongst themselves, and many of the inhabitants took refuge in Asia Minor, and founded there colonies which flourished greatly, but afterwards occasioned the war with Persia.

The Greek tribes had, notwithstanding many political differences, excellent institutions for the maintenance of a feeling of unity among them. They met together at great popular festivals, and for games on a grand scale—especially at Olympia in Peloponessus — and these assemblages tended greatly to maintain sentiments of honour, patriotism, and public spirit, as well as to promote knowledge and the arts ; and from the year 776 B.C. they reckoned their time from these meetings, that is by *Olympiads* — or periods of four years. In important affairs they all consulted the Delphic oracle of Apollo, whose decisions were held sacred ; a proof that even these heathens believed that the issue of all their undertakings depended on Divine Providence.

The disputes among the States were at length settled by the Amphictyonic Council, and thus peace was restored.

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## CHAP. XXII.

THE PERSIAN ATTEMPTS ON GREECE — MIL-  
TIADES — THEMISTOCLES — THERMOPYLÆ —  
PLATEÆ — SALAMIS.

R. C.  
490. IN the year 500 B.C. the Grecian colonies in Asia Minor made an attempt to throw off the yoke of the Persians, and for that purpose formed an alliance with the Athenians; but in this attempt they were unsuccessful. Asia Minor was obliged once more to submit to the Persians, and Darius, the Persian king, vowed vengeance on Athens and the other Grecian states. He first sent ambassadors to demand submission, but the ambassadors were put to death. He then sent a fleet and an army; but the fleet suffered shipwreck, and the army was defeated before it reached the Grecian territory. A second fleet was now sent forth, of which the Greeks had far more reason to be afraid, as it contained a considerable armed force, to be set on shore near the city of Athens; and now the Athenians, deserted by nearly all the other Grecian states, were in alarm, and proposed to fly at their enemy's approach. But one man, named Miltiades, alone stood forth, and fired each sinking heart with valour; he then led the Athenians to

battle, and defeated the Persian army on the plains of Marathon, in the year 490 B.C., though his army was, as compared with the Persians, a mere handful of men. Miltiades was received on his return with loud acclamations as the defender of the city ; and inscriptions, paintings, and anniversary festivals rendered the victor and his victory of immortal memory.

Darius, more enraged than before, now levied another army of millions of men ; and, though he did not live to command them, Xerxes his son carried on the preparations of the armament with increased activity, and, pouring his infantry into the northern provinces, awed the majority of these Grecian states into submission. In the north, however, a steep and lofty mountain chain, passable by one narrow gorge alone, the Pass of Thermopylæ, formed the barrier of Greece. This pass was now defended by Leonidas and his Spartans, and for some time every effort of the Persians was in vain ; till at last a shameless and execrable traitor led the enemy by a bypath over the mountains. Leonidas and his brave soldiers, thus surrounded on all sides, perished to a man, though not before they had committed great havock among the troops of the enemy. The Persians were now approaching Athens, and the people, seeing the impossibility of defending the city against so overwhelming a force, abandoned their houses and fled to the neighbouring coasts and islands, where all who were able to bear arms



**B. C.** took to the ships and made ready for battle. And  
**480.** now the countless fleet of the Persians came in sight, and the Greeks entertained serious thoughts of sailing away ; but a stratagem of Themistocles saved the liberties and the honour of Greece. He gave notice to the enemy that his countrymen intended to fly, and thereupon the Persians surrounded the narrow inlet that confined the Grecian fleet, and when the Greeks endeavoured to carry their determination into effect they found themselves encompassed on all sides by the enemy. In the meanwhile, Themistocles had made every preparation for the approaching struggle, and supported his countrymen with the greatest enthusiasm. The Persians, unacquainted with the coast, ran their ships aground, and were so crowded that many vessels could not come into action. At last a part of their fleet went over to the Greeks, and the rest fled in the utmost confusion. Thus did Themistocles, 480 B. C., win the ever-memorable battle of Salamis, which at once secured the liberty and independence of Greece, established the Athenian supremacy among the Grecian states, and rendered the name of Themistocles immortal. Xerxes, who, in the meantime, had burnt Athens to the ground, fled with the greatest precipitation back to Asia, followed by his army, which suffered severely from privation and sickness. Still, 300,000 men remained on the northern frontier of Greece, who in the spring of the following year, 479 B. C., made another incursion,

and penetrated as far as Athens, but suffered so terrible a defeat at Plateæ that the proud Persians never again ventured to attack the Greeks amid the narrow passes and fastnesses of their own native land.

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## CHAP. XXIII.

### THE SPARTANS AND ATHENIANS.

THE two principal races of ancient Greece, the Spartans and the Athenians, differed widely in character and institutions. The Spartans were rude and warlike. Their laws, well calculated to train up a nation of warriors, were given them, in the year 888 B.C., by Lycurgus, a man of royal parentage, who, by the extent of his travels, had acquired great experience. Their country was divided into equal parts; arms and agricultural implements were in common; meals were eaten in a common hall, and consisted of plain and untempting food: the black broth, of which we all have heard, forming their principal diet; the coinage was of iron. The Spartans were forbidden to travel into foreign countries, and foreigners were rarely permitted to settle in Sparta. No Spartan town was allowed to be fortified with walls, the arms of its inhabitants being considered its best defence. The health and strength of

B. C.  
488.

the female constitution was secured by stated exercises. It was the pride of the Spartan woman to be the mother of men, and much deference was paid both to a mother's praise and censure. The Spartan education was a system of severe discipline. Every infant was examined as soon as born, and, if found to be deformed or imperfect, it was exposed and left to perish on the hills. The boys were accustomed to sleep without covering on beds of rushes, and to practise their gymnastic exercises in a state of nudity. The young were expected to be silent in the presence of their elders, and only to speak when spoken to. No idle or frivolous conversation was permitted; on the contrary, one point of their education consisted in learning to express themselves briefly and to the purpose. They were taught to endure with patience hunger and sleepless nights, heat and cold, and even corporal punishment. Thus the Spartans grew up a race of warriors; but paid no regard to the arts and sciences, and were strangers to all the more gentle virtues. They were ruled by two kings at once, who were controlled by the Senate, and afterwards by the Ephori. The most memorable Spartan war was that carried on from 743 to 668 B.C., against the Messenians, who defended themselves with heroic courage, but were ultimately defeated.

In the early portion of their history, from about 1550—1068 B.C., the Athenians were

governed by kings, of whom Cecrops, the founder of Athens, was the first; and Codrus, who devoted himself to death for his country, the last. After his death, magistrates, called Archons, were appointed, who governed in an arbitrary manner; but in the year 622 B.C. the Archon Draco received the commission to draw up a code of laws. These laws were so severe that they were said to be written in blood. In 592 B.C. Solon was chosen to make new laws, and, as he had in the course of his travels acquired much knowledge and experience, he adapted his laws so well to the character of the Athenians, that through them they attained prosperity and intellectual culture. The Athenians were not wanting in courage, either morally or physically; but they encouraged at the same time a taste for the arts and sciences, such as sculpture, painting, the beauties of architecture, and all the masterpieces of human genius; but more especially poetry and oratory. Great orators, such as Pericles, who lived in the year 444 B.C., were listened to with delight and enthusiasm by all the citizens of Athens. The Grecian temples have been taken as the models of some of our most beautiful churches. All the public buildings of Athens, their market-places and their streets, were adorned with statues, the works of their most celebrated sculptors, while the interiors of their houses were embellished with the chastest ornaments and classic vases. Yet this very fond-

B. C.  
444.

ness for works of art led the Athenians insensibly into extravagance, encouraged luxury and licentiousness, and thus lured them to their fall.

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## CHAP. XXIV.

### THE PELOPONNESIAN WAR — PERICLES — ALCIBIADES.

B. C.  
431.

THROUGH the victory obtained over the Persians, Athens had become the most important state of Greece; but a consciousness of superiority is very apt to be abused, and this was the case with Athens; she made a bad use of her supremacy, aimed at an entire ascendancy with her fleet, and wished to reduce all the smaller states to the condition of tributary allies. The feelings of bitter jealousy which naturally resulted from this design were keenly entertained by Sparta, the envious rival of Athens; and nothing was wanting but a fair opportunity to cause every discontented state to rise up in arms against the tyranny of the Athenians. Such an opportunity soon offered, in the following manner: — Athens had taken part with the island of Corcyra against the rich commercial city of Corinth. The Corinthians laid their complaint before the other states of Greece, who, finding the complaint was well grounded, formed a confederacy, and claimed of Athens the restitu-

tion of all the rights and privileges of every city or state that Athens had subdued. Confiding in the counsel of Pericles, the Athenians positively refused, and an appeal to arms was found necessary to enforce the claim. Hence originated the famous Peloponnesian war, of twenty-eight years, between Athens and Sparta, from the year 431 to 404 B.C. Soon after the commencement of this war, a plague broke out in Athens, committing great havock in the city. This, however, caused no diversion to the war, but slaughter and devastation were carried on with relentless cruelty. The precise form in which the most injurious consequences resulted from the plague of Athens consisted in the general immorality to which the plague gave rise; but it was the puerile inconstancy, and want of all fixed principle in the Athenian character, that eventually caused their destruction. There was one occasion, in 422 B.C., on which they had actually determined on making peace, — and a peace would certainly have been concluded: but, unfortunately, a young man named Alcibiades, who, though vain and ambitious, was generally popular, and the well-known friend of the noble Grecian sage, Socrates, persuaded his countrymen to make an expedition to Sicily. Scarcely had Alcibiades set sail when he was accused of desecrating some images of Mercury, and of open irreverence regarding the form of religion practised in his country, and thereupon he immediately went over to the

B. C.  
431.

B.C.  
403.

Spartans, who, aided by his valuable services, were on all sides victorious. Alcibiades, however, was soon obliged to leave the Spartan army, and, despairing of safety in Greece, he fled to the Persian governor in Asia Minor. The Persians happened to be on the point of sending a fleet to the assistance of the Spartans, and after many protestations and flattering promises, Alcibiades was entrusted with the command. Being thus at the head of a fleet, he soon felt in his heart much more of the Athenian than of the Spartan spirit, and instead of assisting the Spartans, he attacked them; and, being himself among the number of some prisoners taken by the Persians, he effected his escape and fled to the Athenians, who were now, for four consecutive years (from 411 to 408 B.C.), enabled to add victory to victory, clearing the seas of the Spartan fleet, and conquering cities and islands without number. But, unhappily for the Athenians, they hazarded a battle in the absence of Alcibiades, and were defeated; whereupon this inconstant and changeable people transferred the command into the hands of leaders wholly incompetent; and, not long after, the Athenian fleet and all the crews fell into the hands of the enemy, and the city of Athens was sacked under circumstances of insulting barbarity: the walls were levelled with the ground, the surrounding country devastated, and the inhabitants put to the sword. This conduct on the part of the Spartans excited universal in-

dignation, and all Greece became anxious for the deliverance of Athens. Early in the year 403 B.C.<sup>B. C. 403.</sup> the Spartans were expelled from the city, and Athens once more was free; but her spirit was broken, nor could she ever recover her ancient renown. Alcibiades, pursued by the Spartans, defended himself at first in the Hellespont; but afterwards, retreating to the Persian governor in Asia Minor, at the demand of the Spartans he was shot by the arrows of hired assassins.

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## CHAP. XXV.

### THE LIFE AND DEATH OF SOCRATES.

AMIDST the general corruption of manners at Athens, one man preserved an irreproachable character, namely, the illustrious Socrates, who is accounted one of the wisest of men. His father was a sculptor, and he was himself brought up in the same occupation. But this did not prevent him from being practised in all military discipline, and defending his country in several engagements. The favourite pursuit, however, of Socrates was to join the society of young men of talent, and to instruct them, awakening their reflection by his questions, and convincing them that true wisdom is inseparable from a life of virtue. He was also fond of remarking how



B. C. frequently men appear to have far more knowledge  
415. than they really possess. The number of his pupils was small, and it often happened that when he added one to his number, the immorality and loose principles that prevailed soon caused them to separate. Still, the limited number that remained clung to him with unalterable affection. One young man, for example, in his thirst for knowledge, is known to have travelled twenty miles, and at the risk of his life, to enjoy the society of Socrates for a single day. Socrates was a man of most simple habits; he fed on the plainest fare, and went bare-footed both summer and winter; and an old mantle satisfied him for clothes. He exercised and invigorated his body by running and wrestling, and could undergo severe labour without fatigue. "For," he used to say, "true happiness does not consist in luxury and superfluities: on the contrary, to be in want of nothing is divine, and the man of the fewest requirements most nearly resembles the Deity." His manner evinced perfect composure and an easy dignity, wholly unruffled by the emotions of any angry feeling. In a city so demoralised as Athens, a man of the character of Socrates could not be long without enemies. At first an attempt was made to render him an object of contempt and derision; but eventually a formal accusation was brought against him in court, of despising the gods, and corrupting the youth of Athens. Socrates in defence appealed to the whole course of

his past life; but all in vain; for the judges, <sup>B. C.</sup> being chosen from the lower orders of the people, <sup>400.</sup> understood neither him nor his philosophy, and condemned him, as “a despiser of the gods,” to die by poison. Socrates did not want friends who would have ensured his escape from prison; but he not only refused to avail himself of the opportunity, but censured them for thinking of disobeying the laws; and after a long conversation on life, death, and the hopes of immortality, he took the cup without changing a feature and drank the hemlock. His friends stood by and wept; while he consoled them, and at length, saying faintly, “My friends, we owe a sacrifice to Esculapius — I am getting well,” he wrapped himself in his mantle: his friends spoke to him, but he answered no more. He died in the year 400 before the Christian era.

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## CHAP. XXVI.

ALEXANDER THE GREAT AND THE MACEDONIAN  
EMPIRE.

THE dissensions among the Grecian states gave Philip, King of Macedon, an opportunity of reducing them nearly all under his power by his victory at the battle of Chæronea (336 B.C.). His son was the famous Alexander the Great, who, <sup>B. C.</sup> <sup>356.</sup>

R. C. 333. having command of the Greeks, considered himself called upon to be master of the world. Alexander, from his earliest years, gave proofs of possessing daring courage, pride, and ambition. On one occasion he was heard to say, "Alas! my father will leave me nothing to conquer." On another, it is said, he mounted a horse on which the most experienced riders had tried their skill in vain, and brought the animal under complete control; which caused his father to exclaim, "My son, seek for thyself another kingdom. Macedon is too small for thee." In his twentieth year, 336 B.C., Alexander became king of Macedon, and immediately formed the design of putting himself at the head of the Greeks, and, after punishing the Persians for their insolent invasions of the Grecian territory, marching eastwards to the confines of the earth. Alexander first reduced to subjection the small states bordering on his own, and then, in the year 334 B.C., crossed the Hellespont from Europe to Asia; and there, on the banks of a small river, he defeated an army of the Persians from Asia Minor, and added that rich country to his empire. It was here that his life was in imminent danger, and was saved by Clitus, one of his generals. This victory placed the whole of Asia Minor at the mercy of the conqueror. In the year 333 B.C. Alexander came to Tarsus, where, from imprudently taking a bath when he was very hot, he was seized with so dangerous an illness, that at first no physician

would undertake the responsibility of his case. <sup>B. C.</sup>  
At that critical moment the Persian king drew <sup>330.</sup>  
near with a powerful army. The illness of Alexander was at its greatest height, when his faithful physician, Philip, though accused at the moment of an intention to poison him, administered so efficacious a medicine that in a few days Alexander, amidst shouts of congratulations, led his army against the Persians. The two armies met on the banks of the Issus; the fight for a time raged fiercely on both sides; but at length the Persians were beaten back in confusion. Many thousands were taken prisoners, among whom were the wife, mother, and daughter of the king, Darius III., who himself escaped with difficulty. The Persian camp supplied immense booty. After this Alexander marched along the Assyrian coast to the south, and in the year 332 B.C. destroyed Tyre, marched through the land of the Jews, subdued Egypt, and there founded a city which he named Alexandria. In 331 B.C. he again crossed the land of the Jews in a north-eastern direction, towards Nineveh, and encountered on his march the King of Persia with a fresh army. The Persians fought with desperate valour; but by the superior tactics of Alexander they were put to the rout. Many were killed and taken prisoners; and in the year 330 B.C. the Persian king, while retreating before Alexander, was murdered by his own attendants. Province after province now surrendered. Persia,

**B. C.** 326. Babylon, Media, and every country as far as the Indus, made submission. By booty thus acquired the common soldiers, as well as their commanders, were enriched to such a degree that nothing but splendour and luxury would content them, and they gave up their minds to the invention of all kinds of extravagance. Alexander himself grew haughty, and, deluded by the most shameless flattery, presumed so far as to demand, not only that the Persians should kneel to him (for they had long been accustomed to slavish usages), but also that the free Greeks should deign to bend the knee, and award him the honour due only to the Most High. Calisthenes, who refused this slavish homage, was thrown into prison, and afterwards put to death. Clitus, the general who had saved his life, he murdered with his own hand, for daring to rank the achievements of his father Philip higher than those of the son. Still, urged on by a spirit of enterprise, Alexander feared no danger, and he now conceived a passionate desire to penetrate to what he thought the end of the earth. But a secret mutiny was spreading among the soldiers; they no longer followed with their usual alacrity; and when, arriving at the other side of the Indus, he prepared to lead them across the Hyphasis, they all refused to a man; and in the year 326 B.C. Alexander was obliged to retreat. He therefore sailed down the Indus; and as at an earlier period he had become acquainted with brave and learned Indian princes,

so now those far-famed sages of India, the Brahmins, attracted his attention. One part of his army sailed from the mouth of the Indus back to the Persian Gulf; the others marched by land across the burning desert, where many thousands perished. In Persia Alexander afforded his soldiers abundant refreshment, and gave them liberal rewards; but they still remained dissatisfied. Alexander now marched to Babylon, and had already made his plans and preparations for conquering every known country to the south and west, as he had done those on the east, when death anticipated his designs, and cut short all his hopes of earthly glory in the year 323 B. C. As Alexander had appointed no successor, his generals divided among them his great empire, extending from the Adriatic to the Indus; but not till after twenty-three years of war. Of these new monarchies, Egypt, Syria, and Macedonia, with the formerly independent states of Greece annexed, were the most powerful; but as they were continually at war with each other, and thus impaired their resources, even before the Christian era they were made provinces of the Roman empire.

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## CHAP XXVII.

## THE EARLY ROMANS.

SEVERAL centuries before Christ the Romans were as famed for a warlike spirit as the Spartans themselves. Their capital was the city of Rome, situated on the Tiber. Every citizen was by birth a soldier; and though their territory at first was scarcely ten miles wide, almost all the kingdoms of the then known world in later years had yielded to their arms. In times of peace their chief occupation was agriculture, a pursuit in which it was thought no discredit even for the highest to engage. Their dress consisted merely of a toga, or flowing robe, for the climate of Italy is extremely warm, and this may also account for the meals of the Romans being few. Their principal repast was between the hours of five and six: their chief diet consisted of porridge, meat, figs, and wine usually mixed with water. Their temples, palaces, and houses were rudely constructed of clay and hardened bricks, and there were as yet no straight streets, and no pavements; but their laws were severe and well administered.

The history of the origin of Rome is lost, like that of the Greeks, in fabulous tradition. Ascanius, a son of Eneas, is said to have escaped

from the burning city of Troy, and to have <sup>B. C.</sup> founded the kingdom of Alba in Latium. One <sup>750.</sup> of his descendants, Numitor, was the grandfather of Romulus and Remus, twin brothers declared to be the sons of the god Mars. Immediately after their birth, they were, according to tradition, exposed in the river Tiber, and since the water was decreasing, they were left lying on the bank and afterwards suckled by a she wolf, until a shepherd found them and gave them to his wife to bring up. When they grew up, and their royal origin was accidentally discovered, they built the city of Rome on the spot where they had been exposed (754 B. C.).

Romulus killed his brother in a quarrel, and then reigned as king over the new town of Rome, which he had peopled by making it an asylum for criminals, and afterwards by artfully carrying off a number of young Sabine women — and by his warlike valour he rendered it formidable to all surrounding states. After him followed, according to tradition, six kings, who, mostly by warlike exploits and partly also by religious institutions, raised Rome to distinction, and subjected the little neighbouring communities; but this brave-spirited people could not submit to their cruelties. Tarquinius, who had killed his predecessor as well as many noble Romans, was expelled; and thus ended the monarchical form of government. Tarquin made several attempts to recover his kingdom, but in vain: a conspiracy was formed in



B.C.  
508. his favour by the youth of Rome, but this was detected. A foreign king, Porsenna of Etruria, whom Tarquin had induced to assist him, was repulsed, and the town saved by the bravery of a small body of the citizens. Horatius alone defended the bridge over the Tiber, and prevented the enemy from forcing an entrance into the city. Mucius Scævola penetrated into the enemy's camp, with the intention of killing the king, but by mistake he killed the secretary; and when threatened to be burnt to death, he calmly stretched his hand over some burning coals near which he was standing, and held his hand in the fire until it was withered by the heat. Fear and astonishment seized all who beheld him, and the king, revering so bold a nation, made peace with the Romans on easy terms. As security for the conditions of this peace, the king took hostages, and among the number many young women; but they soon escaped the vigilance of the guard, and swimming the Tiber regained their native Rome; and though they were all delivered up by the Romans, the king gave most of them their freedom. Nothing, however, could induce the Romans to receive Tarquin again as their king, and Rome became a republic, under two Consuls chosen yearly by the Senate. After abolishing the kingly dignity, however, the warlike people would not submit to the rule of the richer and higher orders, who now attempted to secure for themselves the fruits of all the victories, and

exclude all others from civil appointments. But in this they were violently opposed by the people, who after much civil commotion, prevailed; and from that time they shared in the privileges of the patricians. This success, however, caused them to grow presumptuous; they delighted in flattery, and allowed themselves to be bribed, and thus contending parties arose, which led to the most sanguinary civil wars.

While the Romans were thus contending with domestic enemies, they became unexpectedly entangled in a foreign war, which brought their city to the brink of destruction.

Swarms of Gauls, under Brennus, had made a hostile incursion into Italy, and since some Roman envoys were found fighting against him among the Etruscans, he marched against Rome. The Romans, who were not at all prepared for the reception of so formidable an enemy, were entirely defeated in a battle near the river Alba, and the Gauls plundered and burnt their city. The Capitol alone was successfully defended by Manlius, and even that, it is said, would have been taken in a nightly assault had it not been for the cackling of some geese, which awakened its defenders. But while the careless Gauls were occupied with plunder, Camillus, a Roman, who had been banished, hastened to the help of his fellow-citizens, and having collected a sufficient force, drove out the Gauls, who had to retire empty-handed (390 B.C.).

## CHAP. XXVIII.

## THE WAR OF ROME WITH PYRRHUS.

B. C. 280. WHEN the Romans threatened to subdue the Tarentines, that people invited to their assistance Pyrrhus, out of the northern part of Greece. Pyrrhus brought over a powerful army with many elephants, an animal the Romans never had seen before; and their cavalry became unmanageable through the instinctive terror of the horses. The Romans were defeated, although Pyrrhus lost a great number of men. Overtures of peace were now made by Pyrrhus, but the Romans, fired by the spirited oration of a brave old veteran, returned for answer, that no terms could be received until Pyrrhus had left the shores of Italy. Pyrrhus then tried to corrupt the honesty of Fabricius, a man of known worth though low estate; but this project failed, and the money was rejected with scorn. An attempt was afterwards made to frighten him with an elephant, but the Roman did not lose his self-command. Pyrrhus had now another engagement with the Romans, and though once more victorious, so great was the extent of his loss, that he uttered the exclamation so often quoted, "Another such a victory, and I am undone!" and gladly availed himself of a specious pretext for leaving Italy,

founded on a request by the Sicilians that he should come to their assistance; accordingly<sup>B.C. 276.</sup> Pyrrhus transported his army to Sicily. After two years he returned, but the Romans had now learnt the art of frightening the elephants by throwing among them balls of lighted pitch, and the animals becoming wild and unruly, and turning on their own army, put it into utter confusion: the result was, that Pyrrhus was so totally defeated that he was obliged to fly, leaving to the enemy his encampment and stores. This encampment first taught the Romans how to fortify a military position. Curius, the general of the Roman army, a man as poor but as incorruptible as Fabricius, marched into Rome in triumph, followed by four elephants.

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## CHAP. XXIX.

### CARTHAGE—THE PUNIC WARS.

CARTHAGE, founded by a colony from Tyre on the northern coast of Africa, and which had<sup>B.C. 869.</sup> grown by its shipping and extensive commerce to be a city of considerable importance, observed with jealous eye the growing power of Rome. The Carthaginians had possessions in Sicily, and finding that some Roman soldiers had won by treachery the town of Messina, some troops were

B. C. sent from Carthage under pretence of assisting  
264. the citizens, but with the real object of taking the town for themselves. The Roman soldiers sent home to their countrymen for reinforcements, which were accordingly sent, and thus originated the twenty-four years' war between Rome and Carthage, called the first Punic war, which was carried on with great animosity from 264 to 241 B.C. The Romans, in 264 B.C., crossed over to Sicily on rafts and many similar contrivances, and conquered almost the whole island. It was in Sicily they built their first fleet, taking for their model a Carthaginian ship that was stranded, and gained, under Duilius, their first naval victory, defeating a powerful fleet of the enemy, in the year 260 B.C. Regulus had the boldness to cross over to Africa, and, although at first victorious, was eventually conquered and taken prisoner, 254 B.C. After several years of misfortune the Romans, in the year 250, won so important a naval victory, that the Carthaginians were compelled to sue for peace, and sent their prisoner Regulus to arrange the terms; but Regulus used all his influence to dissuade his countrymen from accepting the terms of their enemy, and, on his return to Carthage, was most cruelly put to death.

This tale, of the heroism of Regulus, is one of the most popular in Roman History, and presents the grandest picture of disinterested virtue. Horace and Cicero both bear testimony to the

story, that when Regulus was sent by the Car-<sup>B.C.</sup>thaginians to propose terms with the Romans, he<sup>241.</sup> was bound by the most solemn oaths to return to Carthage without delay, and at the same time threatened with all the vengeance of his enemies in case he should return without effect. Still, when he came to Rome, he actually advised the Senate to reject the proposals, and then tore himself from the embraces of his family, and put aside the throng of friends who would have obstructed his return, and, in the calm serenity of moral greatness, bade adieu to his home and his country, deliberately preferring a death of agony to a life of dishonour. It is said that the enraged Carthaginians cut off his eye-lashes, and exposed him to the mid-day sun, and afterwards left him to perish of agony in a barrel lined with spikes. This is said to have happened about B.C. 257.

After this the Romans lost several fleets and exhausted their treasury; still rich and poor made common cause, and built one large fleet more. The Carthaginians, too, made every effort on their side, but they were defeated, 241 B.C., and compelled to accept the terms of peace dictated by Rome; namely, to evacuate Sicily, to give up all Roman prisoners, and a sum commonly computed at 375,000*l.* of our money. After peace was concluded, the Romans, not satisfied with their new acquisitions, obtained treacherous possession of Corsica and Sardinia. The Carthaginians determined on vengeance, and,

**B. C.**  
**218.** crossing over to Spain, conquered a great part of that country. The Romans became alarmed, and entered into a treaty that the Carthaginians should neither attack Saguntum nor cross the Ebro. But Hannibal, the Carthaginian general, regardless of the terms of the treaty, laid siege to Saguntum; and thence arose another fierce war between the hostile nations, lasting from 218 to 201 B.C. Hannibal was one of the greatest commanders in the whole history of the world. He led his African soldiers, with all the encumbrance of horses and elephants, over those cloud-capped barriers of Spain, the Pyrenees, and, traversing by forced marches the south of France through an enemy's country, he arrived at the foot of the Alps, and then ascended to the regions of eternal snow and ice. These enormous barriers the African army was obliged to pass. Often in their march whole companies were left behind through fatigue, or fell by the hands of robbers. At length, after nine days of continued ascent, when several thousands of his men and most of the beasts of burthen had already suffered a painful death, Hannibal attained the summit; and, in a region far above the clouds, surrounded by the snows and ice of ages, he allowed his army two days' rest. The descent was yet more difficult and dangerous; many were dashed down some bottomless abyss; many were buried under the avalanches which were continually thundering around them; and, when the army arrived in Italy, out of the 59,000 men

who accompanied Hannibal out of Spain, twenty-<sup>B. C.</sup>  
six thousand were all that remained. Notwith-<sup>216.</sup>  
standing this loss, Hannibal, in the year 218 B.C.,  
defeated two Roman armies; and though suffer-  
ing from illness consequent on the loss of an eye,  
in the following spring he penetrated into the  
interior of Italy, and fought and won another  
battle. But now the Roman general Fabius  
kept him at bay, by continually putting off the  
hour of action; and Hannibal, shut up in the  
defiles of a valley, was just on the point of de-  
struction, when he effected his deliverance by a  
wonderful stratagem. The cautious policy of  
their general, however, did not suit the Roman  
soldiery, and it was arranged that Fabius should  
divide his forces; but his men soon returned  
with expressions of sorrow, and declared him  
their one and only general: indeed, his match-  
less skill alone had saved the thoughtless soldiers  
from imminent danger. In the year 216 B.C. a  
rash and unskilful commander risked a battle on  
the plains of Cannæ, when the Romans were so  
utterly defeated that had Carthage given Han-  
nibal the support he required, the city of Rome  
must have been quite at his mercy.



## CHAP. XXX.

HANNIBAL — SCIPIO AT ZAMA — FALL OF  
CARTHAGE.

B. C. 210. HANNIBAL, however, deserted by his country at this momentous crisis, was obliged to seek assistance from other states, and made alliance with Sicily and Macedonia; but all in vain. He suffered several defeats, and Sicily was altogether subdued by the Romans, who, in spite of a gallant defence, and the scientific operations of Archimedes, took and destroyed the Sicilian capital, Syracuse, 210 B.C. But, even at this trying juncture, Hannibal had the skill to maintain his position. Carthage at length sent auxiliaries, but they never reached him, being defeated on their march, 207 B.C. And now Spain was also lost, conquered by the Roman general Scipio, who immediately crossed from Sicily to Africa, and Hannibal was summoned away from Italy. He left in sorrow the land of his fame, and was defeated by Scipio, near Zama, 202 B.C., when the most degrading conditions of peace were exacted; namely, that the Carthaginians should burn all their ships but ten, and never commence another war without the consent of the Romans. Hannibal fled from Carthage, and, going to Antiochus, King of Syria, in Asia, he persuaded him to make war

on the Romans. Antiochus consented to the war; but during its progress, neglecting the advice of Hannibal, he was overthrown, and deprived of a great part of his kingdom; the surrender of Hannibal was made one condition of peace. Hannibal fled to a king of Bithynia 190 B.C., and when his surrender was again demanded by the Romans, he poisoned himself in the year 183 B.C., the same year in which his conqueror Scipio died. The oath of undying hatred to the Romans, which his father compelled him to take when he was only nine years old, he had kept more faithfully than he did other oaths.

Rome, meanwhile, was regarding the quiet resuscitation of Carthage to all its former splendour with feelings of no slight jealousy; and one of their citizens, named Cato, took every opportunity of fanning the flame. The Romans he declared could never be happy till Carthage was in ruins. It happened just now that a neighbouring state had robbed the Carthaginians of part of their territory, and they, not daring to levy war without consent, made complaint to the Romans, and begged their assistance; but this the Romans not only refused, but actually declared that the Carthaginians had no right to the land in question. The king of the aforesaid state now grew bolder than ever, and the Carthaginians rising up in their own defence, Rome declared they had violated the treaty, and sent an army into Sicily. Carthage surrendered both her subjects and her

**B. C.**  
**146.** property; yet the Romans, not satisfied, sailed over to Africa, and called on the Carthaginians to give up their arms. This was also conceded, but when the order came that they should destroy their city, and build it twenty miles from the coast, the Carthaginians were reduced to desperation, and determined to resist to the last; the houses were stripped of their timber for ships, all available metal was forged into arms, and the women, it is said, made bow-strings of their hair. In this manner they defended themselves two years; in the third year, 146 B.C., the city was stormed, and nearly all fell a prey to fire or sword. The massacre raged for six days, and was succeeded by a conflagration lasting seventeen days. The whole territory of Carthage then became a Roman province under the name of Africa.

In the same year also, Corinth, the most beautiful city of Greece, was plundered and burnt by the Romans, under the rude Mummius, and all its treasures of art destroyed. Greece too then became a Roman province, under the name of Achaia.

Thus the Romans now possessed, in addition to the whole of Italy, Sicily, Sardinia, and Corsica, all Spain and Portugal, with the Balearic Islands, Africa, Macedonia, Greece, and Asia Minor. These provinces were governed by Consuls and Prætors, who were changed every year, and who generally came to the provinces poor, but went back very rich, from the extortions they practised on the inhabitants.

## CHAP. XXXI.

## CÆSAR, POMPEY, AND CRASSUS.

WHILE the victorious Romans were thus pursuing their conquests in Africa, Asia, Greece, and Spain, great disorder and corruption of morals prevailed in Rome. Some of the Romans were enormously rich, and others exceedingly poor; nobody liked to work, and all desired enjoyments: the poor therefore became the dependents of whoever would give them the most, and the rich could bribe them to do whatever they desired.

Thence arose factious parties, and then sanguinary civil wars. The first blood was shed when the tribune of the people, Tiberius Gracchus, proposed a law by which no citizen was allowed to possess more than 500 acres of land. The rich opposed this and killed the tribune, and some years afterwards his brother Caius, with several thousands of their followers.

In the first civil war, which arose out of the <sup>B. C.</sup> jealousy of the generals Marius and Sylla as to <sup>80.</sup> who should have the chief command against Mithridates, a ferocious struggle took place in Rome, in which blood flowed in torrents, and above a hundred thousand men lost their lives.

The tremendous slaughter committed by Marius and Sylla in the streets of Rome did not have

**B. C.** the effect of restoring any kind of order. A con-  
**63.** spiracy was formed by Catiline, a profligate man, who drew together thousands of spendthrifts and criminals, who endeavoured to found their own fortunes on the ruins of Rome and the dead bodies of its greatest men. But the watchful Cicero, the great orator, philosopher, and statesman, frustrated his designs, and Catiline and his adherents fell, after a sanguinary struggle (63 B.C.).

At length, in the year 60 B.C., three men obtained the lead in Rome. These were Cæsar, Pompey, and Crassus. Crassus was enormously rich, and Julius Cæsar is considered the greatest of all the Roman generals, and a man of greater capacity than either of the other two; and not more able than ambitious. Though naturally of a weak constitution, he invigorated his frame by all kinds of bodily exercise. From his mother he acquired an affable address, and the art of flattering in his speeches; and while quite a youth he had proved himself possessed of a commanding firmness and a daring courage. He submitted to exile from Rome rather than put away a beloved wife; and, on one occasion, when captured by pirates, he conducted himself rather as their leader than their prisoner. He had, nevertheless, the art to create an impression at Rome that he was a thoughtless young man, caring little about glory or ingratiating himself into the affections of the people. But when he had quietly convinced

himself of his popularity, he came forward as a candidate for an office usually held by none but the oldest and most dignified senators; and all were surprised to find this young man elected to the office of Pontifex Maximus, before several others his superiors in age, standing, and experience. From that time people began to know him better, and to stand in awe of him. Pompey and Crassus soon observed that, though hitherto the first men in Rome, they were beginning to lose their importance, because Cæsar distributed money to the people with the wildest profusion. They considered it, therefore, far more politic to avoid having him for their rival, and if possible secure him as their ally, dividing the power of Rome among the three. This conclusion of their secret conference both people and senate confirmed. Cæsar then set out for Gaul, which he conquered, and then made excursions into Germany, as well as England; by these means he increased both his fame and his fortune, and through his popular manners the army became devoted to his service. Crassus marched into Asia, and fell in the war with the Parthians, while Pompey's sphere of action was Spain; but he preferred remaining in Rome in defiance of the laws, and of his own agreement, and left his province to be governed by others in his name; he even procured himself the appointment of Governor of Spain, and of the highest magistracy in Rome at the same time, a thing utterly unknown before. Cæsar demanded

B. C.  
60.

B. C. 44. equal privileges, claiming to be appointed Governor of France, while he still retained the highest office in Rome; but this Pompey opposed, and Cæsar, accompanied by his faithful soldiers, returned from Gaul. Pompey was now obliged to fly from Italy, and in the year 48 B.C. was defeated at Pharsalia, in the north of Greece, and on landing in Egypt assassinated. Pompey's adherents in Spain and Africa were also defeated after well-fought battles.

The great and powerful are never in want of flatterers, and flattery can corrupt even the noblest of mankind; and so it proved with Cæsar, who no sooner found he had no enemy to fear, than he grew proud and unapproachable, repulsing the deserving, and exalting their inferiors. But Cæsar's great fault was his aspiring to obtain the title of Emperor, a word so hateful to the Romans. In this he raised a prejudice which all his generosity was unable to resist, and a spirit of disaffection was daily increasing. At last a conspiracy was set on foot; Brutus placed himself at the head of it; and on the 15th of March, 44 B.C., Cæsar was assassinated in the senate-house of Rome.

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## CHAP. XXXII.

BRUTUS—ANTONY AND CLEOPATRA—THE  
ROMAN EMPIRE.

BRUTUS soon perceived he should best consult <sup>B. C.</sup> his safety by flying from Rome; his army was <sup>42.</sup> defeated, and he committed suicide. Octavius, Lepidus, and Antony now shared the Roman empire. Octavius took Europe as his portion, Lepidus Africa, and Antony Asia, where he became acquainted with Cleopatra, queen of Egypt, with whose charms he was so infatuated, that he seemed to live only for her, and in her company passed his time in the most shameless dissipation. Disputes with Octavius called him back to Italy, but they were soon reconciled, and, according to the general wish of the people, he took to wife Octavia, the beautiful and virtuous sister of Octavius. This lady for a time withheld Antony from his extravagances, and maintained peace between her brother and her husband; when, however, Antony returned to Asia, in the society of Cleopatra he lost all regard for his faithful wife, and actually divided his share of the Roman empire amongst Cleopatra's sons. Then, for the first time, Octavia, who had borne calmly all the insults which had affected herself alone, became indignant, and her brother



<sup>B.C.</sup>  
<sup>30.</sup> Octavius eagerly seized upon this pretext to make war upon Antony. A battle was the consequence, in the year 31 B.C.; and, as Cleopatra faithlessly deserted him, Antony also fled, and his brave army surrendered to Octavius. Octavius crossed over to Egypt, where Antony was a second time defeated, after which both he and Cleopatra put an end to their lives, 30 B.C. Octavius, after this generally called Augustus, had been adopted as a son of the murdered Cæsar, and because several of his successors belonged to this family, the name of Cæsar was generally used as the style and title of the Governors of Rome: through the German pronunciation Cæsar is altered into Kaiser, which signifies Emperor. Augustus now assumed the reins of government as sovereign, both in the city of Rome, which had now two millions of inhabitants, and over the whole empire. He was not, however, destined to be happy, for his domestic peace was continually disturbed. He had a wicked, intriguing wife, called Livia, who gradually murdered or exiled all his friends, and compelled him eventually to name his hated step-son, Tiberius, as his successor. Tiberius proved a malicious, cruel prince; and his immediate successors, Caligula, Claudius, and Nero were equally bad. A few good emperors upheld the supremacy of the Roman empire about 100 A.D., but when they had passed away, from the year 200 A.D. the imperial purple was generally worn by licentious, cruel, and barbarous

men, few of whom died by a natural death. Thus the empire continued in a constant state of dissension, till it eventually fell to pieces. It was in the reign of Augustus that our Saviour Jesus Christ was born, and under the reign of Tiberius that he was crucified.

A. D.  
1—

The love of Antony and Cleopatra constitutes one of the few romantic tales of Roman history. Cleopatra was queen of Egypt, and daughter of Ptolemy Auletes. As she had supported the cause of Brutus, Antony, in his expedition to Parthia, summoned her to appear before him. The beautiful Cleopatra, conscious of her irresistible charms, used every art that dress or ornament could supply to appear before Antony in the height of her female attractions. Her beauty prevailed; her haughty judge became her tender lover. Hence his desertion of Octavia, as before related, and the rupture between Augustus and Antony, ending in the battle of Actium. Here Cleopatra assisted with sixty sail, to which Antony added one hundred and seventy, and twenty thousand men on board; but the flight of Cleopatra, followed by that of Antony, decided the fortune of the day; and Antony and Cleopatra next met with angry feelings. Antony went on board her ship, but sat for three days in solemn silence, and still refused to see her; but at last her maid of honour brought about a reconciliation. Cleopatra, when arrived at Alexandria, commenced hauling her ships over the

B. C. 31. Isthmus of Suez, intending to fly with her treasures to some unknown land; but the Arabs, being in the interest of Cæsar, burned her vessels and defeated her project. She then began to prepare her kingdom for defence: and even under the awful responsibilities of this moment, and though Antony and Cleopatra were both meditating self-destruction, they passed their days in feasting and revelry, in the true spirit of the heathen, "Let us eat and drink, for to-morrow we die."

Cæsar was approaching through Asia when he received an envoy from Cleopatra resigning her crown and only asking Egypt for her children, while Antony craved leave to live in ignoble ease and security at Athens.

To Antony, Cæsar deigned no reply; to Cleopatra, he offered every favour on one condition only, that she should banish her lover or put him to death!

Antony, now desperate, drew out his troops, and held Cæsar in check at Alexandria, till his troops went over to Cæsar, whereupon he returned to the city crying out that Cleopatra had ruined and betrayed him.

Cleopatra, a little before, had caused to be built a kind of sepulchre near the temple of Isis, in which she placed her jewels and treasures, and covered them over with combustible matter, intending at the last extremity to set fire to the treasure, and perish with all for which she had

the soul to live. To this sepulchre she now <sup>B.C.</sup> retired, and spread a report that she was dead. <sup>30.</sup> This news revived all the tender feelings of her lover, who, resolving not to survive her, attempted self-destruction by falling on his sword. Antony was lying in agony writhing upon his bed, and vainly calling on some one to release him from his sufferings, when Cleopatra, from her living tomb, sent to announce that she was yet alive, and entreat him to allow himself to be carried to her sepulchre. The dying Antony assented; and as Cleopatra would not open the door of her retreat, assisted by her maids she drew him up by cords at a window, and laid him on her bed in a transport of grief, and there Antony expired in the fifty-third year of his age.

Cleopatra was not however to die as soon as she intended: Cæsar, informed of her design, and eager to save the treasures and compel the queen to grace his triumph at Rome, contrived to make her his prisoner. When he entered Alexandria, he commanded she should receive every respect, and even be allowed to solemnise the obsequies of Antony, and he soon went to pay Cleopatra a visit. Once more Cleopatra tried the powers of her female charms, but neither tears nor smiles could move the unsusceptible heart of Cæsar. The conqueror left his fair captive, not doubting she had prevailed; but in a few days she was convinced that her hopes were vain, by learning that she and her children were to be sent on into

B.C. Syria. And now she resolved to die ; and having  
30. permission to visit the tomb of Antony, she embraced it, and strewed it with flowers, and then, as if her mourning was over, she sat down in all her costly attire to a splendid banquet. While at table, a peasant came with a basket of figs, and passed the guards without suspicion. Cleopatra took the basket, aware of its fatal contents, and having written a letter to Cæsar requesting to be buried with Antony, she took an asp from among the figs, and, retaining in the room only her maids Iras and Charmione, applied it to her arm ; and when the guards entered they found her lying dead on the couch, Iras dead at her feet, and Charmione just expiring in the act of arranging the diadem on the head of her mistress. Cleopatra was buried by Cæsar in the same tomb with Antony, but her two sons followed in the triumphal procession intended for their unhappy mother at Rome.

Cleopatra is celebrated not only for her love of pleasure, but for her wasteful extravagance. In a banquet given to Antony, at Alexandria, she is said to have melted pearls in her drink to make her entertainment the more costly. She was fond of appearing dressed as the goddess Isis, and advised Antony to make war upon the richest nations to support her extravagance. Her mental endowments were little inferior to her personal attractions. She is described as capable of giving

audience to the ambassadors of seven different nations, and addressing each in his own language.<sup>B. C. 30.</sup> Cleopatra died in the 39th year of her age.

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## CHAP. XXXIII.

## THE ANCIENT GERMANS ; THEIR MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.

Two thousand years ago Germany was covered over with forests, furze, and marshes, and, consequently, the climate was colder and less genial and fertilising than at present : not a single tree bearing fruit was to be seen. Amongst the plants of natural growth were the wild asparagus, and the large radish or parsnip, called by the Romans "*pastinaca*." The only kinds of corn that were cultivated were barley and oats ; of barley, beer was made, then called barley wine ; and of the oats they prepared a kind of porridge. The principal and most valued property of the ancient Germans consisted in numerous droves of horses and oxen. The horse served not only for driving and riding, for war or convenience, but sometimes for food ; and some were considered sacred horses, and their neighing was observed as a means of divination. Troops of horses and oxen were at that early time found in Germany in a wild state : from the horns of the oxen drinking cups were

A. D. 1—200. manufactured; but the number of wild animals has been materially diminished by hunting and the great increase of population. Large flocks of migratory birds settled much more frequently in Germany in those days. Salt wells and mineral springs were highly prized by the ancient Germans. The German races were celebrated among the Romans for their commanding stature, their blue eyes, and their red hair, and regarded with terror for their military ardour. They wore arms both at home and in the field, at the banquet and at the court of justice; and weapons were even laid in the tomb on the body of the dead. Even the women participated in this warlike character, which also led the ancient Germans frequently to take the name of some fierce and strong beast of prey. The stronger and more warlike the German warrior, the less he thought it necessary to work. The pursuits of agriculture, and every kind of domestic economy, were left entirely to the women and old men. The free and hardy warrior was to be seen at the chase and at the feasts, entering into every known dissipation, drinking and gaming night and day. In point of honour and good faith their character was to be admired, and the ancient Germans were not in other respects so ignorant as some of their later descendants have supposed; they already possessed a kind of popular constitution, and were divided into provinces or districts, each with its chief under the name of Count, who decided all disputes after the

manner of those primitive times. The praises of <sup>A.D.</sup> their warriors were the theme of their songs. <sup>1—</sup> 200. Their dwellings and clothing were simple; the women wore dresses of linen, sometimes ornamented with purple stripes. The nation was divided into a number of small communities which did not congregate into one town, but resided in separate villages. Their princes seldom governed a large territory, but they were ambitious of being surrounded by numerous dependents, who for the most part clung to their leaders with a degree of attachment which no words can describe: to escape alive from a battle in which the leader was killed was deemed the greatest disgrace. The bravery of the Germans rendered them a terror to all other nations. The Romans were but too glad to enlist them for soldiers; and the emperors were proud of having conquered their country; though the Germans themselves were yet unconquered. When Cæsar first led his soldiers against them, a general murmur arose, many deserted the camp, and Cæsar's victory was solely attributed to the German soothsayers having forbidden their prince to risk a battle before new moon.

At a later period, a step-son of the emperor Augustus penetrated as far as the Elbe, when a part of the country lying between the Rhine and the Elbe became a Roman province, and all appeared so quiet and submissive that Quinctilius Varus attempted to introduce the Roman language and laws. This offended the Germans; they united



**A.D.**  
**9.** under Herman, and, having surrounded Varus in a wood, fell upon his army, and put the greater part to the sword. To this victory Germany owes her liberty, as well as the blessing that her native language is still preserved, and is spoken at this hour. This defeat occasioned such a panic at Rome, that the Emperor Augustus wished to send all the young men in the city to the Rhine, a measure he could only effect by threats of great severity, and when they arrived on the banks of the Rhine nobody was there to meet them. The contempt of death amongst the ancient Germans, to which we have already alluded, proceeded from their belief in another and more blissful state beyond the grave, where hunting, fighting, and revelry would constitute their chief amusements. In consequence of this belief, horses, dogs, and slaves were burnt with the dead; even weapons and money were put into the grave, and on the sea-coast fragments of ships. The ancient Germans, for the most part, honoured one supreme being whom they worshipped in sacred groves; this Being they at one time called "Wodan," at another "Father of all;" till gradually, in the course of the following centuries, the sanctifying influence of the Christian religion shed a light over Germany, instructing its people to offer up their prayers to one God, the one only Almighty and Eternal Father.

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## CHAP. XXXIV.

## THE DIFFUSION OF THE GOSPEL.

OUR Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ, who vouch-<sup>A.D.</sup>  
safed to take human form at the town of Bethle-<sup>1.</sup>  
hem, in the land of Judea, was permitted by the  
mercy of God, not only to be an atonement for  
man's sins, but also to be the founder of the one  
and only true religion. Our Saviour saw that  
the Jews limited their religious observances to  
mere formal ceremonies, regardless of the purity  
and sanctity of the heart. He perceived also that  
their teachers, the Scribes and Pharisees, were  
pretenders and hypocrites; and this was shocking  
to the holiness and truth of his heavenly nature.  
We are all familiar with the sacred precepts and  
parables by which our Lord endeavoured to lead  
them from forms and ceremonial observances to  
the true religion of the heart, and implicit faith  
in God, evidenced in love to all men, and strict  
rectitude of daily conduct. He attracted many  
disciples, but those who attached themselves to  
him most faithfully were those called the Twelve  
Apostles. We must refer to the Evangelists  
and the Acts of the Apostles for the history of  
the most faithful and devoted of his followers. It  
is well known that our Lord's ministry offended  
the Jews, especially the sect of Pharisees, who

<sup>A. D.</sup>  
<sup>1-33.</sup> charged him before the Roman government with instigating the people to sedition, and with aspiring to be the king of the Jews. We need not relate the cruel enmity with which the Jews, disappointed in their ambitious expectations of a temporal prince who would throw off the Roman yoke, urged their false accusations; nor how, in exact fulfilment of prophecy, our Lord was condemned to suffer the agonising death of the cross. But the good seed which he had sown was not allowed to perish. By the grace of God his Apostles were enabled to disseminate his doctrines throughout the whole of Judea, and even as far as Greece and Rome. Their congregations at first were small, for Christians were regarded as Jews; and in Rome the Jews were always treated with great severity in consequence of the resistance they so often made to the Roman government. It is true that Jerusalem was destroyed in the year 70 A.D.; but this did not put an end to revolts, in which the severity due to the Jews too often fell upon the Christians. Many were put to death because they refused to deny the truth of those comfortable doctrines to which they fondly clung as the conviction of their minds and the persuasion of their souls. By their steady endurance of death they obtained the name of Martyrs; and when heathens beheld in them the courage of their own brave warriors, they were sometimes persuaded to be baptized into the faith. In the year 300 A.D. there were many Christian congre-

gations ; yet Christianity was not formally recognised ; but soon afterwards the Emperor Constantine openly professed himself a Christian, received the sacrament of baptism, and ordered the demolition of heathen temples (A.D. 331). This was the Emperor who built Constantinople, and decided on making it the imperial residence in preference to Rome, and in consequence of this profession of Constantine, Christianity became the religion of the Roman Empire. Many churches were built, and their services conducted with great splendour, while the old worship of the heathen deities gradually lost most of its votaries ; though some impute to the Christians, to whom Christ had given the one great law, "love one another," and even "your enemies," that they now displayed great severity against those of a different religion, by persecuting the heathens and burning heretics. Soon afterwards too there arose between the Patriarchs of Rome and Constantinople a dispute about precedence ; each was ambitious of being acknowledged as chief Patriarch. The reaction caused by this dispute about superiority made many imagine it to be meritorious to withdraw altogether from the world and its honours ; and at last the monastic system arose, in consequence of the belief that it would be meritorious to separate from the walks of men, and that in tranquillity and seclusion, with prayer, vigils, fasting, and flagellation, men could the better lead a godly life. Many monasteries were erected, which in

that early time had a very beneficial and civilising effect upon the unpolished people of the western empire.

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## CHAP. XXXV.

### DECLINE OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE.

A. D. 1—200. THE great Roman Empire comprehended Portugal, Spain, France as far as the Rhine, Holland, England with the south of Scotland, Switzerland, the southern parts of Germany as far as the Danube, Italy with its islands, Hungary as far as the Danube, European Turkey, the Crimea, Circassia, the whole of Asia Minor, Syria, Phœnicia, Palestine, Egypt, Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, Fez and Morocco, and all the numerous islands of the Mediterranean. This vast empire was attacked, 200 A.D., by the Franks on the Rhine, by the Alemanni at the sources of the Danube, by the Goths from Hungary and on the Black Sea, and by the Persians in Asia; and, worst of all, by continual dissensions and factions in the city. To obviate this evil, two emperors had for a long time divided the sovereignty, till, in the year 395 A.D., this great kingdom was formally divided into two parts, the Eastern and Western Empires. The capital of the one was Constantinople, of the other, Rome. This separation was more especially necessary in consequence of the great

migration of hordes which was then taking place. <sup>A.D.</sup>  
 The Huns, driven by the Chinese out of the <sup>374.</sup>  
 south-eastern part of Asia, came, in the year  
 374 A.D., over the Don to Europe, joined the  
 Alanes on the Don, and attacked the Goths,  
 whose territory extended from the borders of the  
 Black Sea, along the Danube, as far as the sea to  
 the eastward. This people was divided into two  
 nations, the East and West Goths. The West  
 Goths, driven forward by the East Goths, crossed  
 over the Danube, and entered the territories of  
 the Eastern Empire; and, not satisfied with this,  
 they marched forward into Italy, and thrice plun-  
 dered Rome, between the years 403 and 409 A.D.  
 In consequence of this, the Roman Emperor was  
 obliged to recall all his troops from England, the  
 Rhine, and the Danube, and scarcely were these  
 troops withdrawn when every nation on the  
 frontiers advanced. The Franks and Burgun-  
 dians from Germany crossed the Rhine to France,  
 the Vandals and Suevi rushed upon Spain, and  
 other hordes penetrated into Italy. At this time  
 the Goths left Italy, overran France and Spain,  
 and founded the great Gothic kingdom in the  
 west, from the Atlantic Ocean to the Loire,  
 416 A.D. The Franks established themselves  
 northwards from the Loire to the Rhine; while,  
 to the southward, the Burgundians occupied the  
 country along the Seine and Rhone as far as the  
 Rhine. The Vandals passed over to Africa and  
 conquered Carthage, which had been rebuilt by

A. D. the Romans 429 A.D. The Anglo-Saxons out of  
450. Holstein were, in the year 450 A.D., called over by the Britons as allies against the invasion of the Picts and Scots, who had attacked the Britons from the north of Scotland. Soon, however, great numbers of the Britons were obliged by the Anglo-Saxons to escape to France, where they established themselves securely in the northern Peninsula, since called Bretagne. The Venedi and the Sclavonians immigrated into the northern part of Germany, as far as the Elbe and Saale, which, in consequence of these wanderings, had been vacated. In a short time, Attila, king of the Huns, attacked this newly founded monarchy, and conquered a large territory; which, however, immediately after his death, was recovered, 453 A.D. From that time, Italy was invaded by one German nation after another, and many Italians fled from the horrors they were suffering to the islands of the Adriatic, where they founded Venice. In the year 476 A.D., Romulus Augustus, the last of the Roman Emperors, was deposed, and the Western Empire was dissolved into a number of petty states. The East Goths, a German nation, under the famous king Theodoric, had in 493 A.D. possession of Rome. The Eastern Empire maintained itself nearly a thousand years longer, namely, till 1453, when Constantinople was taken by the Turks.

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## CHAP. XXXVI.

THE EMPEROR JUSTINIAN—BELISARIUS — SILK  
MANUFACTURE INTRODUCED.

ALTHOUGH the East Goths had embraced the <sup>A.D.</sup> gospel, they were regarded as heretics by the <sup>538.</sup> Italians. Accordingly an ambitious general of the Emperor Justinian, named Belisarius, after conquering the Vandals in Africa, and reducing them to submission, determined to cross over to Italy. This he accomplished in the year 536 A.D., and met with no resistance till he came to Rome. There, however, he was attacked by an army full twenty times as numerous as his own. Still, he defended himself a whole year; and at the end of that time he was relieved, and the Goths were obliged to withdraw from Rome, leaving their affairs in a very critical position. Belisarius had even by a stratagem got possession of Upper Italy; but the Emperor, mistrusting him, summoned him away, and the Goths again conquered almost the whole of Italy. Justinian, it is true, then sent his general back, but without either troops or money; and Belisarius, highly indignant, was obliged to evacuate Italy, 540 A.D. Belisarius was succeeded by Narses, who was supplied with money and troops; and though the Goths bravely defended themselves, they were



A. D. 555. compelled to yield to superior forces, and Italy, in a state of ruin and devastation, became a province of the Eastern Empire, 554 A.D. Yet, in the year 568 A.D., another horde of barbarians, called Lombards, came out of Germany, and, conquering the north of Italy, they confined the Greeks to a small territory.

In the year 555 A.D. silk-weavers first came to Europe: before this time it was generally supposed that silk grew upon trees in India and China; very little silk was worn, and that was extravagantly dear. Persian caravans had hitherto supplied the Empire with the costly web; but now they ceased their importations, because Justinian was at war with Persia. Two monks, however, showed the Emperor the nature of silk, procured some eggs from India, allowed them to hatch, and succeeded in obtaining silk. Justinian now founded several manufactories in his Empire, but kept the breeding of silkworms a secret. In the year 1130 A.D., a king of Sicily, in the course of a war with the Empire, took several thousand of the silk-manufacturers and transported them as prisoners to Italy. From Italy the manufacture reached Spain, and, since the year 1600, France, and from France, in the year 1700, it was introduced into Germany.

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## CHAP. XXXVII.

## ACCOUNTS BY CONTEMPORARIES OF THE INVASIONS OF THE VANDALS, GOTHs, HUNS.

As the student reads of the hordes of wild hunters and herdsmen who, issuing from the forests and marshes of Scandinavia and Germany, overran the Roman Empire, it is useful to derive some distinct conceptions of this "Scourge of God," or that "Destroyer of Nations,"—for such were the titles of those who were let loose to devastate the Roman provinces, as if in vengeance for the evils which the tyranny, corruption, and refined vices of the Empire were heaping on the human race.

"If," says Robertson, "a man were called to fix upon the period in the history of the world during which the condition of the human race was most calamitous and afflicted, he would, without hesitation, name that which elapsed from the death of Theodosius the Great (A.D. 395) to the establishment of the Lombards in Italy (571)." And Robertson gives much reason for believing that these barbarian invasions amounted to little less than the utter extermination of the civilised inhabitants of the Roman Empire, and replacing them and their arts and sciences with the grossest habits of savage life. Where the white man

A. D. 395—571. settles in America, the Indian, from the exhaustion of his hunting-grounds and his habits of intemperance, soon disappears: such was the depopulation and re-peopling of the provinces of the Empire by the more sudden and immediate agency of fire and sword. The following statements are borne out by contemporary historians:—

The Vandals were the first of the barbarians who invaded Spain. They found it the richest and most populous of the Roman provinces. The Spaniards had resisted the arms of Rome with greater obstinacy than any other nation in Europe; but so entirely had they been enervated, that in two years the Vandals actually divided Spain among them by casting lots! And, as to the nature of their invasion, it is said by Idatius, an eye-witness:—“The barbarians wasted everything with hostile cruelty. The pestilence was no less destructive. A dreadful famine raged, so that the living were reduced to feed on the bodies of their friends. All these plagues at once desolated these unhappy kingdoms.”

Next, the Vandals led about 30,000 men into Africa; and St. Augustine, a contemporary, speaks to the following effect:—“They found a province well cultivated and plenteous, the beauty of the whole earth. They carried their destructive arms into every corner of it; they depeopled it by their devastations, exterminating every-

thing by fire and sword. They did not even spare the vines and fruit-trees, that those who had retreated to rocks and caves might find no nourishment of any kind. Their hostile rage could not be satiated, and no place was exempt from the effects of it. They tortured their prisoners with exquisite cruelty, to force a discovery of their hidden treasures. The more they discovered the more they expected; and the more implacable they became. They regarded neither the infirmities of age nor of sex, neither the dignity of the noble nor the sanctity of the priest; but the more illustrious their prisoners, the more barbarously they insulted them. The public buildings which resisted the flames they levelled with the ground, leaving many cities without an inhabitant. When they approached any fortified place too strong for their undisciplined armies, they assembled a multitude of prisoners, put them to the sword, and left their unburied corpses putrefying in the sun, that the stench beneath the walls might compel the garrison to surrender.”

So much for the barbarities of the Vandals in Spain and Africa; but the Huns, who, in the fourth century, overran the northern parts of Italy and Gaul, were still more exterminating in their ravages. Cultivated lands they left wastes — populous cities with scarcely an inhabitant; a few miserable survivors of their families and their nation wandered, in fear and trembling, among the ruins of churches, their hiding places; and

A. D.  
355-  
571.

A. D. the fields were covered with the bones of the  
395- slain.  
571.

Look at the most cultivated estates of England; imagine villas, and vines and gardens, verdant lawns and shady groves: such was Italy under the Roman Empire. Think of a wilderness, overgrown with brushwood, and black with the stagnant marshes of choked and diverted streams; rarely a hut denoting human kind, but "peopled with wolves, its old inhabitants:" such was Italy in the eighth century. Under Charlemagne, Italy was cleared and peopled over again, as if for the first time, like the wilds of America by modern settlers.

Procopius, the historian of the Goths, throws a veil over their cruelties, "lest," says he, "I should hand down a monument and example of inhumanity to succeeding ages."

But who were the Goths?

The present division of Sweden into East and West Gothland marks their supposed origin in Sweden. The Goths broke the Roman power, sacked Rome, and reigned in Gaul, Spain, and Italy.

The Vandals and the Goths had the same origin. The Goths are divided into Ostrogoths and Visigoths; while the Lombards, Heruli, and Burgundians are divisions of the Vandals.

Some of the Goths settled in the Ukraine, and, with a powerful fleet on the Euxine, commanded the Bosphorus. In 260 they ravaged Greece, and,

in Asia, destroyed the famous temple of Ephesus, <sup>A. D.</sup> where was worshipped the goddess, of whom it <sup>260-</sup> was said "Great is Diana of the Ephesians!" <sup>553.</sup> Her temple had risen with increasing splendour after seven different misfortunes, and was supported by 127 Ionic columns of marble, each 60 feet high. It was 425 feet long, and St. Peter's, at Rome, is but about 600 feet.

About 395, the Goths, under Alaric, destroyed many of the noble works of Greece, and soon afterwards Alaric invaded Italy. Shortly before this, Valens, the Roman emperor, not satisfied with the success of his generals in keeping them at bay, consented to their being transported over the Danube and received under the protection of the Empire after their defeat by the Huns. At that time they numbered nearly a million, including women and children.

In 549 the Goths took Rome; but it was soon reconquered by Justinian's general, Narses, who defeated and killed Teias, the last general of the Goths, 553.

The Huns came originally from a large barren tract of country not far north of the great wall of China—a continuous line of 1500 miles of fortification, designed to resist their invasions of the Chinese Empire. The Chinese at one time paid, <sup>B. C.</sup> like the Romans, to keep their barbarian enemy <sup>100.</sup> from their territory, a tribute or dishonourable bribe; truly dishonourable, because, besides money and silks, even a certain number of the daughters

<sup>A D.</sup>  
<sup>350-</sup>  
<sup>443.</sup> of China were annually surrendered to their enemy. Some verses are preserved, in which a Chinese princess laments that she had been condemned by her parents to distant exile under a barbarian husband, that she is to have milk for her drink, raw flesh for her food, and a tent for her only palace. But the Chinese emperor Youti, 141 A.D., repulsed the Huns, followed up his advantages, and the Oriental Tartars joined in breaking the power of the Sanjons (as their chiefs were called), after it had lasted 1300 years. This was before the end of the second century of the Christian era.

The Huns next appear, about 350, on the banks of the Volga, the Tanais, and the Caspian Sea, as the terror of the Goths, who are described in the reign of Valens as seeking the protection of Rome. Indeed, the Huns are said to have driven the Goths and Vandals before them into the Roman Empire. In 433 the Huns were found in modern Hungary, wasting their powers by the discord of their chiefs, until they were united under Attila.

Attila, king of the Huns, called "The Scourge of God," united the empires of Scythia and Germany, invaded Persia, and then attacked the Eastern Empire under Theodosius, ravaging the country for hundreds of miles, even to the walls of Constantinople. The Emperor was compelled to purchase peace by an immediate payment of 6000 lbs. of gold, for the expenses of the war,

although he had done nothing to provoke it; and so exhausted was the treasury, that the jewels of the ladies and the plate of the palace were sold by auction to raise the sum required. Attila retired to Hungary, where he haughtily received embassies from the Emperor, who afterwards bribed a Hun to murder him. The conspiracy was discovered, and the Emperor of the East cringed for pardon to the king of barbarians. In 451 Attila invaded Gaul, already in possession of the Visigoths, with whom the Romans joined arms. Attila received a severe check at the battle of Châlons, apparently one of the most bloody in history, and evacuated Gaul. In the next year Attila invaded Italy, and Venice was founded by those who took refuge from Attila in the little islands of the Adriatic. Honoria, the sister of Valentinian, was to form part of the stipulated ransom of Rome; but Attila died by the bursting of a blood-vessel before "the beautiful Honoria" was sacrificed to this barbarian, at once hideous and misshapen, and in features like a Calmuc.

The empire of the Huns, at the death of Attila, shared the fate of the empire of Macedon at the death of Alexander, being divided, weakened, and destroyed by the dissensions of contending chieftains.



## CHAP. XXXVIII.

## ARABIA—MAHOMET—MAHOMETANISM.

A. D. 571. ARABIA is a very hot, and mostly barren country, of which the southern parts alone are productive; they yield spices, aloes, and coffee, and the horses of Arabia are also celebrated. The greater part of the Arabs live the life of wandering herdsmen, or carry on caravan traffic; they are generally hospitable and lively, and easily excited to anger; robbery they consider quite fair play. They are regarded as the descendants of Ishmael, and seem, as robbers by land and pirates on the deep, to have literally fulfilled the prophecy, —“thy hand shall be against every man, and every man’s hand against thee.” In the south, however, especially on the coasts, some cities were established at an early period, which carried on a prosperous trade with India and Egypt. Among these people, in the year 571 A.D., was born in the city of Mecca, Mahomet, the founder of a religion that has spread over a great part of the East. He was of the distinguished tribe of Koreish, but having lost his parents at a very early age, and inheriting from them no other fortune than an Ethiopian slave and five camels, he was brought up by his uncle as a trader, and in this capacity made several jour-

neys to Syria, where he became acquainted both with Jews and Christians. When he had amassed a competent fortune by trade and by a marriage with a rich widow, he retired into seclusion, from which he afterwards returned, declaring himself to have been chosen as the prophet of the Lord. The angel Gabriel, he asserted, had been sent to him to declare this appointment, and he gained a few disciples; but, it is said, "a prophet has no honour in his own country;" and much hostility being excited against him in his own tribe, he was obliged to fly from Mecca to Medina. From this flight, called in Arabia the Hegira, which occurred on the 16th of July, 622, the Mahometans reckon their years. In Medina Mahomet found so large a number of adherents, that in a short time he was enabled to lead troops of armed men against his enemies; Mecca was obliged to submit, and all Arabia was ultimately conquered. Mahomet even penetrated into Syria, whence he sent embassies to the Emperor Constantine, to the ruler of Persia, and to Abyssinia and Alexandria, calling on all sovereigns to embrace his doctrines. He died in the year 632, probably from the effects of poison previously administered, and his body was placed in a coffin at Mecca, to which it is considered a duty for every devout Mussulman to make a pilgrimage. The doctrines of Mahomet are contained in a book called the Koran, and appear to be partly formed from a combi-

A. D.  
622.

A. D.  
622.

nation of Jewish and Christian precepts with heathenism, and with some that were probably added to render the new faith attractive to a sensual and voluptuous people. He taught that mankind should acknowledge one God, the eternal and all-powerful Creator of the universe; that the laws of this Creator tend universally to the happiness of His creatures; that man's duty to God is to pray seven times a day—to honour him by such ceremonies as are types and figures of his bounty—to love all mankind as his common family—to assist the poor, the oppressed—and to show kindness even to inferior animals. To these pure tenets Mahomet added others congenial with the licentious habits of his countrymen. He permitted every man to have as many as four wives. He himself, as a prophet, had fifteen. His visions of the bliss of Paradise were of Houries, or black-eyed girls, of resplendent beauty, blooming youth, and virgin purity, seventy-two of which are to be created for the meanest believer; and pearls and diamonds, robes of silk, palaces of marble, dishes of gold, rich wines and dainties, added to the groves, and fountains, and rivers of Paradise.

These laws he taught that God had engraven in the human heart, but that, as vice and iniquity gradually diminished the impression, he had sent, from time to time, his prophets upon earth to revive his precepts by their teaching and example. The most eminent of these were Abraham, Moses, Jesus Christ, and Mahomet—the last the greatest

of all, who was destined to extend the knowledge of the true religion over the whole earth.

A. D.  
622.

Such are the fundamental doctrines and tenets of the Mussulman's faith; and to these are added rules of life, such as the abstinence from wine, and the very frequent ablutions, which are evidently sanitary regulations especially necessary in a warm country. These laws he pretended he received from heaven, by the angel Gabriel, who presented him from time to time with parcels of the Koran in which they are contained. The Koran, amidst many errors in history, chronology, and philosophy, contains some fine conceptions, conveyed in the brilliant figures of oriental writing. In many places the style nearly resembles that of Holy Scripture, from which its author evidently drew many of its most shining ornaments. The illiterate character of Mahomet in his younger days leaves no doubt that he had some able assistants in the composition of the Koran, and its production in small and detached parts enabled him to feel his way, and avoid or explain inconsistencies in his supposed inspirations.

The history of his death, however, renders it credible that he really believed himself inspired. With his last words he inculcated the doctrines of his new religion, and exhorted his followers not to sheath the sword till they had driven all the infidels out of Arabia; and he declared to his dear wife, Ayesha, that the angel Gabriel had

A. D. 632. appeared to give him the choice of life and death, and he chose to die.

Mahomet was succeeded by Abubeker, who first collected and published the scattered fragments of the Koran ; and following up the conquests of Mahomet, he took Jerusalem and subjugated part of Palestine.

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## CHAP. XXXIX.

### THE CALIPHS.—THE SARACEN CONQUESTS.

A. D. 670. OMAR took from the Romans, Syria, Phœnicia, Mesopotamia, and Chaldæa, and then, in a campaign of only two years, reduced Persia under the dominion of the Saracens, and extinguished the ancient religion of Zoroaster, of which no trace remains but what is preserved by the small sect of the Guebres. Egypt, Libya, and Numidia, were also soon Saracen kingdoms ; and in this campaign Omar's lieutenants burned the famous Alexandrian library founded by Ptolemy Philadelphus. The Saracens argued that all knowledge necessary to salvation was secured by the Koran, and that all other learning was vain and superfluous.

The caliph Otman succeeded Omar, in whose reign Bactriana and Tartary, and the islands in the Archipelago, were reduced, and the famous

Colossus of Rhodes destroyed; then Otman, passing into Sicily, struck terror into the Italian States.

A. D.  
718.

Next came Ali, son-in-law of Mahomet, and a name much revered by the Mahometans to this day. He transferred the seat of the Saracen power from Mecca to Couffa on the Euphrates, and the Saracens now thought themselves lords of the earth, for within half a century from the Hegira their dominions had become more extensive than what then remained of the Roman Empire.

After Ali came a succession of nineteen caliphs of the race of Omar, called the Omniades, and then the dynasty of the Abassidæ, the direct male line from Mahomet. Almanzor, the second caliph of this race, changed the seat of empire to Bagdad; and from this time the Saracens began to excel in literature and science. Almanzor encouraged scientific studies at Bagdad, and transplanted thither the Roman learning from Constantinople. Under Haroun Alraschid, contemporary with Charlemagne, arts of utility and elegance rose to a high pitch of splendour.

The manners and customs, and much of the government and policy of the Saracens of this era may be pleasantly studied in the "Arabian Nights," a truthful and minute picture of Oriental manners.

The sciences in which the Arabians chiefly excelled were chemistry, medicine, and astro-

A. D. 750–950. nomy. Algebra, if they did not invent, they were the first to adopt from the far east.

The Caliphs founded the Empire of Morocco, and crossing over to Spain they became masters of the whole country, conquering the Goths, whom, however, they left in the enjoyment of their own laws and possessions. The Saracens in Spain are usually mentioned under the name of Moors, that name expressing the mixed population of Arabians and Africans. The Moors, soon masters of Spain, pushed their conquests beyond the Pyrenees into France; but here they received a severe check in a great battle with Charles Martel, the son of Pepin, and Louis the Débonnaire afterwards sent an army into Spain and besieged and took Barcelona. While the Moors were losing ground in the north of Spain, their countrymen had established a flourishing kingdom in the south. Abdalrahman, last of the family of Omar, sovereign of the Moorish possessions, made Cordova the capital of a splendid monarchy; and from about 750 to 950 A.D., was the brilliant age of Arabian civilisation. While Haroun Alraschid was cultivating the arts and sciences at Bagdad, Abdalrahman at Cordova was at the head of the most enlightened of the states of Europe. The empire of the Franks, under Charlemagne, presented during a part of the same period a beautiful picture of order and strength sprung from confusion and weakness; but this empire perished with its founder, while

the contemporary kingdom of the Moors continued to encourage industry and diffuse a knowledge of the arts and sciences among all the nations of the west. The Moorish structures in Spain, reared during the eighth, ninth, and tenth centuries, convey an idea of opulence and grandeur almost beyond belief. The mosque of Cordova, still almost entire, and the ruins of the Alhambra, the gorgeous palace of the Moorish kings of Granada, corroborate the most wonderful description which historians have given of the magnificence of the Moors in Spain.

A. D.  
750-  
950.

The Saracens were still extending their conquests. They had spread the Mahometan faith over India and along the southern and eastern coasts of the Mediterranean. Established in Sicily, they sailed up the Tiber and besieged Rome. But while the Saracens were waiting the arrival of more forces, Leo IV. used the treasures of the Church to defend the city, and stretched iron chains across the Tiber; and, eventually, all the Saracen invaders were either killed or made prisoners.

But it happened with the Saracens as with all large empires without one head and centre of authority. The generals affected independence, and the empire fell to pieces. Still, even its separate parts long commanded the respect of surrounding nations. Egypt had her own Sultan; Mauritania became the empire of Morocco; the kingdom of Cordova obeyed an independent member of the



A. D.  
1055. race of Omar; and though all these princes continued to respect the Saracen Caliph at Bagdad, they no longer formed parts of the once powerful and united Saracen empire.

The Caliphs of Bagdad, unfortunately for themselves, hired Turks to be their body-guard — a policy which proved as fatal as enlisting the barbarian Goths into the legions of Rome, for the Turks eventually stripped them of their dominions in Asia and Africa, and took the capital Bagdad in 1055. Still the Caliphs were allowed to retain their names and honours as supreme pontiffs of the Mahometan religion.

Omar had built a beautiful mosque in Jerusalem, after reducing Palestine; and this will explain how the Crusaders had to encounter both Turks and Saracens at the end of the eleventh century.

The empire of the Moors in Spain was dismembered about 1027, and in 1221 the kingdom of Granada was dissolved. But soon after Mahomet Alhamar founded anew the kingdom of Granada, and his descendants reigned till the sixteenth century. It was reserved for Ferdinand and Isabella to give the last blow to the Moors by depriving them of Granada, which they yielded to the Roman Catholic armies after a siege of two years. But though their government in Spain thus ended, after a rule of 700 years, the Moors did not leave the country; dispersed over many provinces of Spain, they still maintained

their separation from the Spaniards by language, customs, and a resolute adherence to the habits, and, above all, the religion of their ancestors, and all the efforts of the Spanish friars could bring but few Mahometans to the Christian faith. The Spanish princes, however, had an extra motive for converting the Moors of Spain — for they naturally feared the bond of alliance with the Moors of the opposite coast of Barbary that a common religion afforded. At last, when every milder means had failed, Ximenes, archbishop of Toledo, advised force. The Moors in Granada took up arms, but being defeated, 50,000 purchased their lives by submitting to be baptized. The preaching of the friars and the tortures of the Inquisition combined with occasional warfare in the vain attempt to make the Moors at the same time false to their own faith and true to that of their persecutors; but a hundred and twenty years had passed since the advice of Ximenes, and but few of the Moors had become Christians. At last 100,000 families of the most peaceful and industrious, and the most useful of the subjects of Spain, were madly and mercilessly expelled. And this deed of villany was quickly felt to be no less a crime than a blunder. All Spain felt a severe depression in commerce, and such a blow to its social advancement as it has never recovered. Philip III., who died soon after, is said, by a famous Spanish historian, to have been racked by remorse on the bed of death, by a conscience

A. D.  
1492.

**A. D.** guilty of the misery of 600,000 exiles, “shuddering,” says that writer, “at the thought of being  
**1620.** shortly summoned to that tribunal where they are to have judgment without mercy, who have shown no mercy to their fellow creatures.”

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## CHAP. XL.

### CHRISTIANITY INTRODUCED INTO GERMANY — THE PAPAL POWER.

**A. D.** **IN** Germany, the Franks had been since the year  
**500.** 500 the ruling people. Near them, and as yet unconquered, lay the territories of the Alemanni in Swabia, and of the Thuringians on the banks of the Saale, while the Saxons extended from the Rhine to Holstein. Their incorporation into large societies had produced many changes. Although the Germans were still devoted to war and the chase, agriculture and gardening were nowhere neglected. The people built houses for themselves, and sheds and stalls for their cattle, and joined together forming marches and districts; but the labours of agriculture and housebuilding fell mostly on that class of serfs and vassals whose freedom had been lost by war or purchase. The most momentous of all changes resulted from the introduction of the Christian faith: which, after many efforts of very limited success,

was accomplished by the zealous Winnifred, or Boniface, in the year 715 A.D. He baptized many Germans, and established many bishoprics in Franconia, Bavaria, and Hesse, all of which he made dependent on the Pope, then called the Bishop of Rome, who thus obtained great influence in Germany, over not only its clergy and people, but also its princes.

A.D.  
715.

Rome had now a Greek governor, who forbade, in the name of the Emperor Constantine, the worship of the pictures of the saints. The people rose in a revolt, which the Pope supported; and the consequence was, that the emperor withdrew his prohibition, fearing he might be deprived of all his Italian possessions. The Lombards, from the north of Italy, now attacked Rome, and the Pope applied for assistance to the councillors of the king of the Franks — for the influence of those councillors generally decided the affairs of the kingdom. Pepin, who was at that time one of the council, consented to render assistance provided the Pope in return would declare him king of the Franks; though already, in effect, he held the reins of government. The Pope accepted the terms, and Pepin became, 752 A.D., king of the Franks; and marched, in the years 754, 755, twice into Italy against the Lombards. The territory of which he deprived them he made over to the Pope, but kept to himself the government of the country; and in this manner the Pope became the temporal prince of Rome, Ravenna,

and the neighbouring states; and appeared to have the right to make and depose kings at his pleasure.

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## CHAP. XLL

### CHARLEMAGNE — HIS EMPIRE.

A.D. 772. PEPIN died 768 A.D. He was succeeded by Charlemagne, a man of a powerful body and enlightened mind. He carried on war thirty-three years with the Saxons, who were continually making incursions into the territory of the Franks, and obstinately persevered in their heathen worship. In the year 772 A.D. Charlemagne compelled the Saxons to accept terms of peace, and to send hostages as security against its infringement. While, however, in the year 774, Charlemagne was engaged in destroying the power of the Lombards in Italy, and subduing the northern provinces, the Saxons attacked him again. In 775 they made another incursion for the purposes of plunder, and Charlemagne, greatly incensed, ordered fortresses to be built in the enemies' territory. Numbers now took alarm, and presented themselves to be baptized into the Christian faith, with vows of allegiance to Charlemagne, who, supposing that all was satisfactorily arranged, accepted an invitation to go into Spain on a campaign against the Arabians, and actually

quered that country as far as the Ebro, 778 <sup>A.D.</sup>  
. Once again the Saxons revolted; once <sup>778.</sup>  
in he brought them to subjection, and marched  
second time to Italy, 781 A.D. The Saxons  
at this opportunity of murdering all the Franks  
their territory; and now, so bitter was the  
sentiment of Charlemagne that he ordered for  
punishment no less than 4500 Saxons who had  
been under his power by the chances of war.  
Though this act of savage cruelty the whole of  
con-land was so excited that Charlemagne  
was obliged to retreat; and it was only when his  
army had been reinforced that he succeeded in  
putting down the revolt. At last, in the year 786 A.D.,  
at last, their chief leader, gave himself up,  
and received from Charlemagne the dukedom of  
Saxony. Charlemagne now had leisure to pro-  
tect the north-east boundaries of his kingdom  
against the Wiltzen (789 A.D.), and the south-  
against the Avares. Between the years  
787 and 798 he was engaged with still further  
revolts on the part of the Saxons. At the same  
time it happened that a disturbance in Rome  
compelled the Pope to fly, and he applied for  
refuge to Charlemagne, who restored him to his  
possessions, punished the ringleaders, and on the  
8th of December, 800 A.D., Charlemagne was  
declared Emperor of the Romans, in the church  
of St. Peter. By this new title Charlemagne  
added nothing to his territory, but it had the  
effect of giving him higher pretensions and impor-

A. D.  
804. tance among the powers of Europe. At last, in 804 A.D., all the Saxons presented themselves to be baptized into the Christian faith, and recognised the king of the Franks as their sovereign. Among the descendants of these Saxons, the old Saxon tongue is preserved to this day. The Wiltzen, between the Elbe and the Oder, were also subdued; and the Danes were compelled to take the Eider as their boundary. All the country between that river and the Ebro in Spain, and from the Raab in Hungary to the Roman Tiber, was now included in the Empire of Charlemagne, who possessed the qualities of a statesman no less than those of a general; he caused information to be sent to him from all parts of the kingdom, and sent back his commands and instructions with equal facility. He deemed it a matter of the utmost importance not only to acquire knowledge himself, but to disseminate it among his people. He was a man of extensive reading, a ready speaker, and learned to write after attaining the years of manhood. He invited an Englishman, named Alcuinus, from the county of York, educated under the "Venerable Bede," and renowned for his learning, to come over as tutor to his sons. He founded many schools, and kept them under his own superintendence. He was fond of making plans for buildings, and pursued agriculture and gardening with lively interest. The Franks, it appears, made but poor scholars, and were particularly perplexed with their singing lessons; or,

at least, the Italians are said to have paid some <sup>A. D.</sup> very ill compliments to their vocal powers. <sup>814.</sup> Charlemagne endeavoured to keep the monks employed in copying books, and was always surrounded with learned men, among whom were two amiable youths Eginhard and Augibbert, who, if there be truth in the legend, became his sons-in-law. He did not think it beneath him to attend even to household affairs, and wore no other clothes than those that were spun and woven by his daughters. In the year 813 A.D., on the 16th of November, he presented his son Louis to the assembled people, and with his own hands placed the crown on his head. In 814 A.D., Charlemagne died in the seventy-second year of his age, at his favourite residence, Aix la Chapelle. Among the memorable occurrences of his reign, it may be remarked that an Emir presented him with an elephant, and a Caliph with a clock that struck the hours. This clock was the first work of the kind ever known in Germany.

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## CHAP. XLII.

### INVENTION OF CLOCKS AND WATCHES.

IN very early times people had no watches ; and only observed the rising and setting of the sun as the natural limits of the day ; or, at all events,



the only other point they could distinguish was mid-day as discerned by the increase of the heat and the shortening of the shadows. The observation of increasing and decreasing shadows led to the discovery of the sundial; an invention which appears to have been known first to the Egyptians. An observation of the regular and periodical alteration in the length of the shadows naturally taught men to separate the time between the rising and setting of the sun into equal parts. But the days in summer and winter are of different lengths; in summer long, and in winter short; so that these divisions for the summer-time must have been longer than those for winter. The arrangement was of course imperfect; but the world was obliged to be satisfied with it till it could discover a better. It had been the custom of the Babylonians to divide the day into twelve equal parts or hours; a custom which soon spread among other nations. Sundials were the only measures of time then known; an instrument which only enabled men to observe the time by day, and even then it required a clear and unclouded sky. This naturally gave a stimulus to still further inventions, and the water-clock was discovered. A cask full of water was placed over another which was empty; and a hole being made in the upper cask, an observation was taken of the time it required to discharge itself into the cask below. Various other means were also

adopted, such as immersing an empty cask with a small hole in the bottom into another cask full of water, the hours being counted by the intervals of time occupied by the empty cask in filling and sinking. These water-clocks were the only kind in use before, and for some time after, the Christian era. The hours were reckoned from six in the morning; therefore, men called it one o'clock when we say seven; thus, the "*sixth hour of the day*," and "*the ninth hour*," mentioned in the twenty-seventh chapter of St. Matthew's gospel, implied respectively our mid-day, and three in the afternoon. The Italians, at the present time, count from the setting of the sun on one day to its setting on the next, that is, from one to twenty four. By means of the water-clock, the Romans divided the night into four watches. The clock which was sent as a present to Charlemagne was a water-clock, but provided with hands, and also with small bullets, which fell on a metal platter in numbers indicating the hour. Water, however, does not, on account of evaporation, remain of the same bulk in winter as in summer, but varies according to the temperature; so sand was soon found to constitute the most accurate measure, and it is still used for hour-glasses. All these contrivances, however, were mere make-shifts as compared with wheel-clocks, regulated either by weights or springs. Clocks which are regulated by weights are generally hung on the towers of churches or on walls; they were discovered before

A. D.  
1000.

the year 1000 A.D., though it is not certainly known by whom. Gerbert, afterwards Pope under the name of Sylvester the Second, made one of the first of these clocks, but one which did not strike, and merely showed the hour, 996 A.D. The first clock that struck the hour was seen in Italy, 1300 A.D.; this, however, had no pendulum. The pendulum was invented by Galileo, a Florentine, 1600 A.D.; and a Dutchman, named Huygens, introduced the pendulum into clock-making; which was a great improvement. Pocket watches are still more ingenious as a work of art; they were invented by a German, named Peter Hele, at Nuremberg, in the year 1500 A.D., and they were called from this circumstance Nuremberg eggs: in 1650 A.D. they were greatly improved by the Dutchman "Huygens."

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## CHAP. XLIII.

### HENRY OF SAXONY AND OTTO.

A. D. 900. LOUIS the PIOUS, the son and successor of Charlemagne, did not understand how to keep together so great an Empire. He therefore divided it among his three sons, who concluded in 843 the Treaty of Verdun, by which it was divided into France, Germany, and Italy. Germany soon fell into disorder, partly in consequence of dis-

puts relative to the succession to the crown, <sup>A.D.</sup> partly through the revolts of powerful nobles, and <sup>927.</sup> partly through the attacks of the Wends and Hungarians, who were not yet completely subdued. It was evident that the kingdom was about to split into several smaller states. Conrad, duke of the Franks, was chosen emperor in the year 911 A.D.; but he soon became conscious that he had not the knowledge required to govern a large kingdom like Germany, least of all when in such a state of disorder. In the year 918 A.D. he recommended, as his successor, Henry of Saxony, though Henry had previously been considered his enemy. This prince was elected; and no election could have been more happily made. He won the friendship of all the German princes by his affable demeanour, and restored them to unity and concord. He arranged with the Hungarians for a nine years' cessation of arms, and availed himself of this period to train and discipline his army. He also built many citadels, from which, at a later period, as many towns arose. In the year 926 A.D. he conquered the Wends on the Havel, and founded the Margravate of Brandenburg; and in 927 A.D. that of Schleswig, as a defence against the Danes. After this, he won over the Hungarians so great a victory, that its memory still survives among the peasantry around Merseberg. Henry died in the year 936 A.D. His son Otto I. had a very turbulent reign. He carried on wars with the Danes and the Hungarians,

(whom he finally defeated on the Leinfield near Augsburg), and with Italy, where he deposed two popes. He died in 973. In this reign the mines of the Harz Mountains were discovered, and about this time the nobles began to build those robber-castles from which they issued to plunder travellers and carry on petty wars, called feuds, amongst themselves. The authority of the sovereign over them declined more and more, till at last the knights paid no attention at all to his commands, but every one of them did as he pleased.

In this state of things, the cultivation of the soil, and every kind of learning fell to decay, so that even the German emperors and the French kings could often neither read nor write.

The corruption of morals became general, and open violence, or *Fist law*, as it was called, everywhere prevailed instead of justice. Society consisted only of lords and serfs, and the poor, subject to continual plundering and oppression from the knights, sank deeper and deeper into ignorance and superstition.

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## CHAP. XLIV.

### THE GERMAN PRINCES AND THE POPE.

A. D. 800. THE Roman bishops, who, under the name of Popes, were revered as the true successors of St. Peter, and the vicegerents of Christ, had en-

deavoured, since the year 800 A.D., to become not only the spiritual but also the temporal dictators in all the courts of Europe. Their ambassadors everywhere kept watch over the actions of princes, priests, and people. They mixed themselves up with affairs of government; they even presumed so far as to utter sentences of excommunication, and absolve all subjects from allegiance to their prince: nevertheless, we cannot refuse them the praise of having restrained the most powerful and oppressive rulers, and of having successfully resisted the excesses of temporal power by their sacred and spiritual authority. The power of the Popedom rose to its highest point between 1073 and 1085 A.D., under Gregory the Seventh, who already, as Cardinal under the name of Hildebrand, had ruled at the court of Rome. He declared himself to be the vicar of God, and as such he claimed apostolic preeminence over all kings and emperors, as well as the power both of giving and withholding crowns, being amenable to no earthly judge, and acknowledging his God as his only master. Accordingly he sent legates as his representatives to France, Spain, Constantinople, and Denmark. He emphatically forbade the sale of any spiritual office as the crime of simony; he allowed no prince to fill a priestly office; and he declared that the Pope alone had the power to appoint bishops, and to invest them with the ring and staff, the emblems of their dignity. He also forbade any

A. D.  
1100.

**A. D.** priest to marry. Through these laws, which he  
**1056.** endeavoured to carry into effect with the most uncompromising firmness, he created divisions between the clergy and the princes, whom he compelled to comply with his wishes. The princes the more readily acquiesced in these regulations because they were often at variance with their vassals, and feared the Pope would excommunicate them, and absolve their subjects from their allegiance. The only prince who resisted these orders was Henry the Fourth, of Germany; but he was eventually obliged to comply, and submit to a severe penance.

In the year 1056 A. D., Henry, who was then but six years old, had become Emperor of Germany. Some priests had artfully deprived him of a mother's care, and restricted his education, while Adelbert, archbishop of Bremen, particularly encouraged him in every inclination he evinced for arbitrary conduct. The Saxons, who hated the young monarch as a Frank, were treated by him with great severity. He deprived a Saxon count Otto of the dukedom of Bavaria, and kept the son of the Duke Ordulph of Saxony in prison; in addition to this, he built many fortresses in the Saxon territory, and filled them with Frank retainers. The Saxons begged for some reparation of these injuries, and as he rejected their prayers with insult, they marched against him with an army of 60,000 men, and the emperor was obliged to fly, and sought in vain for succour. He now

lowered his haughty tone, and by assuming a friendly mien he soon collected an army, with which he prevailed over his enemies in the year 1075 A.D. Saxons of the highest distinction were persuaded to give themselves up, trusting to his honour; but he made prisoners of them all, and confined them in fortresses. The enraged Saxons now applied for restitution to the Pope, who thereupon summoned Henry to appear before him as a vassal, and answer the charges made against him. Henry returned as answer that he considered the Pope as deposed. Gregory then issued a bull of excommunication against him, and absolved every German from the oath of allegiance. The sentence of excommunication was at first little heeded by Henry; but when the German princes unanimously declared that so long as he remained under the ban they could regard him no longer as their king, he found himself under the necessity of yielding. In 1077 A.D. he travelled through Burgundy and crossed the Alps, attended only by a few followers, to Italy, and being repeatedly in danger of losing his life. At Canosa, the strong and extensive fortress of the powerful Countess Matilda, he had an interview with the Pope, though at first his holiness refused altogether to see him. At Matilda's intercession, however, he was admitted into the outer court of the castle; and here was Henry, the emperor of Germany, obliged to wait three days and nights in the depth of winter, wrapped in a coarse wool-

A. D.  
1070.



len robe, and barefooted ! It was on the fourth day that the Pope admitted him to his presence, but only consented to absolve him from the sentence of excommunication on condition that he should not again assume his royal authority till it had been decided in Germany whether he still was qualified to maintain it. In the meantime the Germans had elected Rudolf emperor with the consent of the Pope. Henry met Rudolf in the field of battle with desperate valour in Germany, in the year 1080 A.D., and was again excommunicated ; but as Rudolf fell in a battle near Merseberg, Henry seized the opportunity of marching into Italy, and in 1084 deposed the Pope, who died in the year 1085. Henry, however, was still compelled to contest his rights with many an enemy both in Germany and Italy. In the year 1097 A.D., his eldest son revolted against him ; and after the death of that son his youngest son followed the same wicked example, took Henry prisoner, and thus obtained the crown, 1105 A.D. The unhappy Henry died in the year 1106 A.D., in a state of deep humiliation, and his body was not allowed Christian burial till the Pope had absolved him from the ban, which he did in the year 1111 A.D.

## CHAP. XLV.

## THE CRUSADERS.

Early as the reign of Constantine it had been the custom of Christendom to make pilgrimages to the holy sepulchre at Jerusalem; and when, in the seventh century, the Arabians conquered Palestine, they offered the Christians no hindrance in the performance of this act of devotion. When, 1076 A.D., the Turks conquered the Holy Land, they not only profaned the places most sacred, but also offered violence to the Christians; and the fame of this persecution caused great excitement among the Christians of the Western empire. At that time, in the year 1094, Peter of Amiens, called Peter the Hermit, returned from the holy sepulchre, and through his touching description of the sufferings of the Christians, he stirred up the Franks and Italians to such a pitch of enthusiasm that it was decided in the year 1095 to send an army against the infidels. The crusaders chose for their war-cry "God wills it," and for their badge of distinction a red cross, worn on the shoulder. In the spring of 1096 Peter marched from France with a band of followers wholly undisciplined; but his numbers increased wonderfully as he advanced. Germany was also fired with the

A. D.  
1096.

same enthusiasm ; and Peter was at length obliged to divide his numerous army into two parts ; he himself taking the command of one division, while Walter of *Habenichts* (or Have nothing) led the other, and marched forward through Hungary and Servia. But every town and village they approached they pillaged like robbers ; and the consequence was that many were killed long before they reached Constantinople. The Grecian emperor, in his eagerness to be rid of them, shipped them over with all haste to Asia, where the whole army was cut off almost to a man by the Saracens, without having once set eyes on Jerusalem.

In the autumn, Godfrey of Bouillon followed with well disciplined forces ; and when all the other princes engaged in the campaign had joined the army in Asia, they mustered a force of no less than 300,000 fighting men. The Saracens were, however, a brave people ; and when the Christian army had penetrated as far as Jerusalem scarcely 60,000 men survived. These were, however, so inspirited by the view of the holy city that, on the 14th of July, 1099, Jerusalem was conquered ; but the victors are accused of exercising a degree of ruthless cruelty quite opposed to the spirit of the Gospel. Godfrey was proclaimed king of Jerusalem ; and after his death, in the year 1100, he was succeeded by his brother Baldwin of Flanders. It was at Jerusalem that the order of the knights of St.

John was founded, whose especial duty it was to take care of the sick and the poor, as well as to fight with the infidels. Such pious Christians as were unable to serve in person furnished these knights with funds and resources to maintain the holy cause in their stead. Thus the knights of St. John became a very wealthy order; and when driven out of Palestine they took refuge in Rhodes, and after Rhodes in Malta, and now the few remaining knights of the order are dispersed in different countries.

A. D.  
1096.

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## CHAP. XLVI.\*

### ZENGIS† KHAN AND THE MOGUL EMPIRE.

IN the extensive plains between China, Siberia, and the Caspian Sea, many pastoral tribes were in the 12th century united by the genius of Zengis Khan, who was solemnly acknowledged at a general council as "Emperor of the Moguls and Tartars." After becoming by successive victories monarch of millions of shepherds and soldiers, Zengis sent an embassy to Peking to demand back from the Emperor of China the tribute paid by the less warlike ancestors of

A. D.  
1150.

\* The chapter on Zengis Khan and the Mogul Empire has been, in the present edition, transposed to the period where the events it related took place, as it appeared to create confusion to introduce it 400 years before their occurrence.

† The name is variously spelt — sometimes Gengis — sometimes Dchenghis or Chingis.

A. D. 1220. Zengis. Following up his demand by an invasion Zengis stormed or starved ninety cities, and was only induced to retire by a rich bribe of silk and gold, 3000 horses, and 500 maidens !

1214. In a second expedition, Zengis drove his Celestial Majesty beyond the Yellow Sea, and took the city of Pekin by storm, after a terrible siege. The Chinese were reduced to feed on their fellow-citizens ; and it is related that when other ammunition failed they discharged gold and silver from their engines. The Mongols entered by a mine, emerging in the centre of the capital ; and the conflagration lasted thirty days. The five northern provinces of China were then added to the empire of Zengis.

1220. In the west he annexed the dominions of the Mahomedans, from the Persian Gulf to the borders of India and Turkestan. Zengis desired only friendly commercial intercourse with the Moslem prince ; but the murder of a caravan of 150 of Zengis's merchants changed peace for war ; and he is stated to have brought 700,000 men into the field, and to have killed 150,000 of his enemies. From the Caspian to the Indus more habitations and works of man were destroyed by the Mongols in four years, than the last five centuries have been able to replace. Zengis, like Alexander, led his army to the Indus, but was forced to yield to the general desire of his men to return to their native land. After this he overthrew the two empires of Tartary, and at

last in 1227, died, exhorting his sons to achieve the conquest of China. One of the ceremonies observed at his funeral was the slaughter of forty of the most beautiful girls that could be found, who were previously decorated for the occasion with rich ornaments and jewels.

The succeeding Mogul emperors conquered, first, the northern empire of China, and then the southern with Canton. The Chinese of the south took to their boats, and when at last the vessels of the Mongols had surrounded them, the Emperor of China leaped into the water, saying, "It is more glorious to die a prince than live a slave!" and many thousands of Chinese followed his example. Greek fire and gunpowder were used in the war, under the direction of Mahomedan and Frank engineers. The next conquest of the Mongols was Persia and the dominions of the Caliphs, and they sacked Bagdad, killing the last successor of Mahomet.

Thirdly the Mongols overran Armenia, Anatolia, Russia, Poland, and Hungary; and (in 1240) burned the city of Moscow. A horde of them also conquered Siberia, and settled on the shores of the Icy Sea. All these victories were achieved by Mongol generals, the Great Khan residing all the while at Holm or Karakoom, 600 miles northwest of Peking; and to this place, the residence of the Golden Horde, as it was called, the ambassadors of Europe and Asia were forced to travel.

Chinese manners were adopted by the con-

A. D. querors of China ; despotism, as usual, exhausted  
1365. the empire, the provinces were wasted by famine,  
and 140 years after the death of Zengis his  
successors were expelled from China, "and were  
lost in the oblivion of the desert."

Hindustan was not conquered by the house of  
Zengis ; but the Mogul empire, in modern phrase,  
implies all that part of Hindostan and the Deccan  
held by the successors of Tamerlane.

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## CHAP. XLVII.

### ORIGIN OF THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE. — TAMER- LANE AND THE MOGUL EMPIRE.

A. D. THE decline of one empire sometimes marks the  
1300. rise of another. Among the Tartar hordes east-  
ward of the Caspian that retired before the Mongols  
and Zengis Khan, were the Turkomans, who  
settled in Asia Minor. One of their leaders was  
Osman, who named his horde the "Osmanlis,"  
whence "Ottomans," who conquered from the  
Greeks of Constantinople a territory over which  
Osman reigned as the first sultan of the Turkish  
or "Ottoman Empire."

The Turks after this won province after pro-  
vince from the Greeks, till in 1453 they took  
Constantinople, and put an end to the Eastern  
Empire. They had in 1312 consummated the  
ruin of the Seven Churches of Asia, though

Rhodes, defended by the Knights of St. John, <sup>A.D.</sup> resisted their attacks for two centuries. In 1346 <sup>1390.</sup> the Sultan Orchan marrying Theodora, a princess of Constantinople, the Turks gained a footing in Europe. In 1360 Amurath I. might easily have conquered Constantinople; but satisfied with the servile homage of its princes, he turned his arms against the Sclavonian tribes, ever threatening that city, and taking many of their rude soldiers prisoners, formed them into a militia, under the name of Janizaries or "*new soldiers*," in after times the terror of nations, and often of the sultans themselves. From 1389 to 1403, Bajazet I. was victorious from the Euphrates to the Danube: and Constantinople, by its corruption and weakness, would have anticipated its doom by fifty years had not the great Tamerlane appeared to divert the arms of Bajazet and his Turks from that city.

Timour, or Tamerlane, prince of Samarcand in Bockharia, was one of the greatest of oriental conquerors. At an early age made chief of the Tartars, he conquered Persia, invaded Russia, and burned Astrachan; but the great campaign of Tamerlane was the invasion of Hindostan. The Indus he crossed at Attok, and followed the footsteps of Alexander the Great into the *Punjab*, or *five streams* of the Indus. Passing the Hyphasis, where Alexander halted, Tamerlane advanced and fought his way into Delhi, the capital of Hin-



A. D. 1403. dostan, then for three centuries in the hands of Mahomedan princes. Thence he retreated, to enjoy repose at Samarcand at the age of sixty-three, and there planned another campaign against Bajazet and the Turks in Western Asia. And now the Mogul and Ottoman sovereigns endeavoured to alarm each other by recounting their respective conquests. Tamerlane, leaving Bajazet before Constantinople, turned aside to invade Syria, and in 1400 sacked Aleppo, Damascus, and Bagdad; and at the battle of Angora took Bajazet prisoner, and afterwards reduced Smyrna though it had been successfully defended against Bajazet by the Knights of Rhodes. Tamerlane in all his marches carried Bajazet, rather for safety, perhaps, than for insult, in an iron cage on a waggon; an incident which has been often quoted as a striking illustration of the reverses of fortune from which even kings are not exempt.

In 1403, from the Irtish and Volga to the Persian Gulf, and from the Ganges to Damascus and the Archipelago, Asia was in the power of Tamerlane. Still, with myriads of warriors, Tamerlane had not a single ship, and the two passages into Europe, of the Bosphorus and Hellespont, were possessed the former by the Christians of Constantinople, and the latter by the Turks, who now wisely forgot their differences, and made common cause in refusing the transports which Tamerlane demanded of either nation under pre-

tence of attacking their enemy. At the same time, such was the fear of Tamerlane, though the sea roared between that conqueror and his victims, that both the sultan of the Turks and the Greek emperor in Constantinople conciliated him by tribute and pretended submission; and the sultan of Egypt was even much alarmed lest Tamerlane should execute a suspected design of subduing Egypt and Africa, marching from the Nile to the Atlantic, entering Europe by the Straits of Gibraltar, and then, after reducing the kingdoms of Christendom, returning home by the deserts of Russia and Tartary. A giraffe and nine ostriches were sent to him at Samarcand to represent the homage of Africa. A. D.  
1403.

Tamerlane next meditated the conquest of China, previously conquered by Zengis, though his successors had been afterwards driven out by the Chinese. Gibbon relates how, on the throne of Samarcand, the conqueror enjoyed two months of repose, receiving the ambassadors of Egypt, Arabia, India, Tartary, Russia, and even Spain, which last presented the finest tapestry. During this time six of his grandsons celebrated their nuptials; forests of wood fell to supply the kitchen, and the plain was spread with pyramids of meat and vases of wine for thousands of guests. Masquerades and illuminations testified the general joy; and all the trades of Samarcand passed in review with some quaint device, some marvellous pageant, and the materials of their

A. D. 1405. peculiar art. Nine times, according to oriental fashion, were the happy pairs dressed and undressed; while at every change of apparel pearls and rubies were showered on their heads, and contemptuously abandoned to their attendants. A general indulgence was proclaimed, every law relaxed and every pleasure allowed, the people were free, the sovereign was idle, and the historian of Timour remarks that, after devoting fifty years to empire, the only happy two months of his life were when he ceased to exercise his power. But Tamerlane was soon awakened to the cares of government and war. Some 200,000 men, with 500 waggons, and beasts of burthen innumerable, were ready for the invasion of China. The journey from Samarcand to Peking commonly occupied a caravan six months. But the frosts of winter, and of three-score years and ten, cut short the mortal pilgrimage of Tamerlane. Thirty-five years after he ascended the throne of Samarcand, his designs were frustrated, his armies disbanded, and China saved; and fourteen years after his death the most powerful of his children sent an embassy of friendship and commerce to the court of Peking.

The Mogul emperor was, in truth, rather a freebooter than a conqueror, spreading rapine and desolation instead of civilisation and order, and crushing whole nations beneath his feet. The ground occupied with flourishing cities he left marked with pyramids of thousands of

human heads (the usual trophy of the Mongols), and covered with the ruins and ashes of once peaceful habitations. More than one of the successors of Tamerlane were qualified to arrest the dissolution of his empire; but it gradually declined, and its provinces revolted to other masters after the death of him who first united them. A. D.  
1405.

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## CHAP. XLVIII.

RICHARD I. OF ENGLAND—GERMAN EMPIRE—  
WAR BETWEEN ENGLAND AND FRANCE.

THE Christians who remained in Palestine after the conquest of Jerusalem, were so continually attacked by the Saracens, that they were obliged to seek assistance. In answer to their earnest solicitations, in the year 1147, Conrad the Third, emperor of Germany, and Lewis the Seventh, king of France, set out for their assistance, with a large army. This army, however, on its march through Hungary, Servia, the Grecian territories, and Asia Minor, was so weakened and destroyed by attacks of enemies, hunger, and sickness, that both princes had the mortification of being obliged to return without having effected anything; and for forty years after this the defence of the holy sepulchre remained in abeyance. At length, Henry, surnamed the Lion of Saxony, in order A. D.  
1147.

A. D. 1160. to effect its conquest, endeavoured to convert to Christianity the Wends and Slaves on the Baltic, and, with this view, founded many bishoprics, and among others the bishopric of Lubeck, in the year 1165. In the year 1187, the Saracens, under Saladin, again conquered Jerusalem, and then Frederick the First, emperor of Germany, marched to the assistance of the Christians. After incredible exertions he arrived in Asia Minor, by the usual overland route; but before he reached Palestine, he was thrown from his horse into a river, and died, 1190, and his army was totally destroyed by the plague. Richard, surnamed Cœur-de-lion, or the Lion-hearted, king of England, and Philip Augustus, king of France, now landed in Palestine. Without waiting to join forces, they conquered, in the year 1191, the strongly fortified town of Ptolemais; and Richard desired to follow up his good fortune, but the French refused to follow, and returned home. Richard, however, was still ambitious of performing some daring achievement on his own resources, but in vain: when already, in sight of Jerusalem, in 1192, he was compelled to retreat. On his way home he was made prisoner by the faithless emperor of Germany, and detained in captivity till his subjects effected his ransom with a large sum of money, in 1194. Jerusalem now again fell into the hands of the Turks; but the Pope never ceased preaching to Christendom the duty of renewing the holy war.

This was more especially the theme of the ambitious Pope, Innocent the Third, from 1198 to 1216. A number of French counts proposed to enter on a campaign for the holy sepulchre; but instead of going to Jerusalem, they attacked and took Constantinople, in the year 1204, and founded a Latin empire. Andreas, king of Hungary, also stopped short of Palestine; nor was it possible that fifty thousand children, collected together by the priests, should be able to encounter the dangers and difficulties of such an undertaking. At last, Frederick the Second, emperor of Germany, fearing a sentence of excommunication, marched into Palestine, in the year 1228, and not only conquered Jerusalem but regained all the other cities which had been lost. Scarcely, however, had he returned, when the Saracens retook every city he had won. Lewis the Ninth of France now entered on the last of the crusades, and the most unfortunate of all. This was in the year 1248. Lewis, it is true, conquered Damietta, in Egypt; but he was afterwards taken prisoner with almost his whole army, and did not return till 1254. He died in the year 1270, while engaged in a war against Tunis; the object of which was the conversion of the inhabitants to Christianity. The Saracens conquered one Christian town after another, till, in the year 1291 A.D., Ptolemais, the last, fell into their hands. Europe had lost by the crusades six millions of men; but a spirit of enterprise was now awakened. The

arts of the east had been imported to the inhabitants of the western kingdoms, where knights had become more scarce, but citizens more numerous. The business of a merchant rose in importance; civil order was held in higher esteem; and a love of commerce was rapidly spread throughout Europe. Italy was, however, the country where commerce most extensively flourished.

While the crusades were going on, Germany fell into great confusion, from which it did not recover till the vigorous race of the Hohenstauffen ascended the Imperial throne (1137.) They had, however, to maintain a long contest with the Guelphs of Bavaria and Saxony, whose party was joined by the Pope, and at his instigation also by the Lombard cities. The refusal of the Emperor Frederick Barbarossa to acknowledge the Pope, Alexander the Third, was probably the cause of the pope's always remaining attached to their side in the quarrel and opposed to the Hohenstauffen or Ghibellines\*, and at last the words Guelph and Ghibelline came to be used as signifying Papal and Imperial.

This Frederick acquired by marriage the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily for his son Henry VI. His grandson Frederick II., perhaps the most distinguished emperor of the middle ages, lived in almost incessant war with the Popes and Lom-

\* The names were originally *Welf* and *Waiblenzen*, but the Italians finding it impossible to pronounce them altered them into *Guelf* and *Ghibelline*.

bards. Almost all the princes of this house died by violent deaths, and the last scion of Hohenstauffen — young Conradin — fell on the scaffold at Naples in 1268 after attempting to reconquer his inheritance, which had been bestowed by the Pope on the French prince Charles of Anjou.

After another period of disorder which threatened the entire dissolution of the German Empire, Count Rudolph of Hapsburg obtained the crown (1273), and renounced the claims on Italy which had brought so much misfortune to Germany, receiving in compensation the duchy of Austria.

The rule of the French in Sicily was of very short duration. The inhabitants of Palermo, wearied of their oppressions, flew to arms, and on the Easter Monday of 1282, just as the vesper bell had sounded, suddenly attacked and massacred all the French on the island. This event is known in history by the name of the Sicilian Vespers, and it was in consequence of it that Sicily fell under the dominion of Spain.

In France, when the family of the Capets had died out, a collateral line, that of Valois, came to the throne, but as Edward III. of England also laid claim to it, there arose in 1339 a war between England and France, that lasted above a hundred years, occasioned much bloodshed, brought France to the brink of destruction, and kindled national hatred between the two countries. In the year 1422 the English had conquered Paris and a great part of France, and got possession of the



throne ; the Dauphin of France, the heir apparent, having been obliged to fly. In this desperate state of his affairs a peasant girl of eighteen years of age, Joan of Arc, suddenly appeared at his court, and promised to free him and her country from the enemy. Believing herself inspired by God for this purpose, she placed herself at the head of the French army, relieved the city of Orleans, which the English were besieging, and gained so many victories that the Dauphin was enabled to proceed to Rheims and be publicly crowned there ; but the heroine herself was taken prisoner, and condemned by the Court of the Inquisition at Rouen to be burnt as a witch.

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## CHAP. XLIX.

### INDIA—VARIOUS ROUTES FOR ITS COMMERCE.

A. D.  
622.

THE East Indies comprise the peninsula on this side of the Ganges, including the coasts of Malabar and Coromandel ; the peninsula on the other side of the Ganges comprising Malacca, and also those islands of which the largest are Sumatra, Java, Borneo, and Celebes, and the Molucca or Spice Islands. Before the inhabitants of Europe became acquainted with these countries, they knew and fully appreciated their produce, namely, silk, cotton, cinnamon, pepper, ginger, cloves,

mace, nutmegs, allspice, ivory, and other articles. <sup>A.D. 1360.</sup> Some of these commodities the Greeks used to obtain through the Phoenicians, who brought them from Arabia, to which country they had been conveyed by caravans from the Persian Gulf, whither they came from India by sea. Since the time of Alexander the Great these commodities had been transported through the Arabian Gulf to Egypt, and for several centuries Alexandria was the principal mart for the produce of India, but after the year 622 A.D. this route was barred by the wide conquests of the Arabians; and other modes of transit were sought, and found, for transporting to Europe the merchandise of India, but these routes were very circuitous. One route, it is related, lay from the northern parts of India to the Caspian Sea, up the Volga, and through the Ladoga Lake, into the Baltic, and to the harbours of the Wends and Saxons, who thus became the chief purveyors of Indian goods; the people on the Pomeranian coast, and Wisby in Gothland, were particularly active in the trade by which the merchandise was transported to the more western countries. Through this traffic the towns of Lübeck and Hamburg began, about the year 1200, to flourish greatly, and by their means the produce of Germany, such as hops, beer, and linen, were also exchanged to advantage. This commerce suffered much, by land and sea, from pirates and robbers, whose depredations were incessant, to the great detriment of trade in general. In con-

A. D. 1241. sequence of this both Lubeck and Hamburg, in the year 1241, entered into a league for mutual defence, the old German word for which is Hansa; and the good effects of this arrangement became so evident, that several towns, such as Brunswick, Salzwedel, and others, joined the league, and in the year 1300 no less than seventy towns belonged to this Hanseatic confederacy, forming a long and strictly guarded line from Cologne on the Rhine to Narva in Russia. After the year 1360 the merchandise of India was no longer brought into the Baltic, and the commerce of the Hanseatic towns was therefore much diminished; still they contrived to maintain a flourishing condition, till the sixteenth century, when the increasing navies of other powers, the discovery of the New World, and the disunion which arose in their own confederacy, so materially impaired their power that the treaty became a dead letter. Another route for the conveyance of Indian merchandise was up the Volga into the Don, and so on to the Black Sea, from whence the ships of the Greeks carried it to Constantinople. Again, when the Arabians had established themselves in Bagdad, 760 A. D., a third route conveyed merchandise by sea, from India to the Persian Gulf, then up the Euphrates, and over land to the coast of Syria, whence the ships of the Italians conveyed it to the markets of the West. This third route was stopped by the crusaders from the year 1097, or at least it

was rendered unsafe for the produce of India. A. D.  
1400.  
The Genoese, in opposition, contrived to get command of the trade by the Black Sea, conquered Kaffa in the Crimea, and at last became the only importers of Indian goods to Constantinople and the rest of Europe. By this commerce the Genoese became a very rich and powerful people; but in the year 1453, when Constantinople was conquered by the Turks, and the Eastern Empire overthrown, the Genoese were deprived of their settlements in the Black Sea. Some suppose that the descendants of those Genoese merchants may be distinguished among the people of the Caucasus even at the present day.

In the meantime the sultan of Egypt had again established a route for the commerce of India by the Red Sea. By this route the merchandise could be conveyed in the cheapest possible manner, because the only land-carriage was over that narrow strip between the Red Sea and the river Nile. Since that time, and more especially subsequently to the year 1340, the Venetians obtained the goods from Alexandria and Damietta, and the routes by the Black Sea and the Baltic were less frequented, till at last they were altogether abandoned. All the productions of India were procured through Egypt, and now flowed into Europe in much greater abundance; however, the demand increased with the supply, and when at last the sultan of Egypt refused the Europeans the privilege of passing through his

territories, endeavouring to monopolise all the traffic for himself, a general endeavour was made, in the year 1400, to discover a passage to India by sea.

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## CHAP. L.

### GEOGRAPHICAL DISCOVERY — CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

A. D.  
1415. THE people of Portugal, which was at first only a province of Spain, after driving the Arabians out of Europe, pursued them into Africa, and in the year 1415 conquered Ceuta, which lies opposite to Gibraltar. This conquest brought the Portuguese into close communication with the Arabians in Africa, and the Infant Henry, who was fond of studying the sciences, and took a particular interest in geography, made many inquiries to ascertain if it were possible to discover a passage by sea to the East Indies round the western coast of Africa. This object of his investigation was attained, though he did not live to hear it; for at that time the progress of discovery was very slow. The first men sent by Henry to ascertain the truth of his theory returned without having accomplished their purpose. But in 1420, Gonzales, driven on by successive gales of wind, discovered the small island of Porto Santo, and, also in the year 1420, the

island of Madeira ; both of which islands were at that time uninhabited. In Madeira Henry founded a colony, and sent also various seeds and domestic animals. The produce proved valuable, especially the wine and the sugar. The discovery, in the year 1432 A.D., of the Azores, islands lying between Portugal and America, about 900 miles from the coast, was a yet bolder enterprise ; and the wonder became universal when, in 1433, the adventurous Gilianez sailed round Bojador, a cape on the western coast of Africa, hitherto supposed the southernmost part of the earth. Nothing was found at Bojador of any particular value. In the year 1442 the first black and woolly-haired negroes were brought to Europe. They offered gold-dust as their ransom ; and from this time the love of gain so natural to mankind caused a general effort to be made for further discoveries. All the world seemed bent upon finding new lands rich in mines or rivers of gold. Disappointed in this expectation, they had recourse to stealing the negroes, in the hopes of a golden ransom ; and so, by degrees, arose the slave-trade, that shame to the civilised world. In the year 1450 the Portuguese reached the Senegal ; and in 1456 they discovered the islands of Cape de Verd, so called from their constant verdure. Guinea was first known in the year 1462 A.D., the last discovery of which Henry lived to hear, for he died in the year 1463. Although gold had been discovered in Guinea,

**A.D.** and numbers had made voyages to procure it,  
**1481.** still the spirit which had excited former discoveries lay for some time dormant; nor was it till the year 1481 that Henry's scheme was again taken up. In that year a voyage of discovery was undertaken still further beyond the equator, and it was found that Africa extended continually further to the east; and in the year 1486 Bartholomew Diaz arrived at the Cape of Good Hope, a name given by King John the Second of Portugal, who now considered that the passage to the East Indies by sea was beyond all doubt discovered. Eleven years, however, intervened before a second attempt was made to discover the route. At last, in the year 1497, Vasco de Gama, with four small vessels and one hundred and sixty men, set sail, and arrived, after terrific storms, at the Cape of Good Hope; and, sailing up the eastern coast of Africa, passed Mozambique as far as Melinda. Here he received certain information of the existence of a trade with the East Indies by sea, and, guided by African seamen, he arrived, in the year 1498 **A.D.**, at Calicut, on the Malabar coast, and here, to his great astonishment, he found a flourishing and prosperous people, and endeavoured to enter into a treaty with the Zamorin or sovereign of Calicut for the advancement of commerce. But the Mahomedans, who up to this time had monopolised the trade of India in Egypt, succeeded in casting suspicion on the Portuguese character, and Vasco

with difficulty escaped with his ships, in 1499. <sup>A. D.</sup>  
Still, the route to the East Indies had at last been <sup>1499.</sup>  
discovered.

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## CHAP. LI.

## COLUMBUS, AND THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA.

BEFORE this discovery was effected, a native of <sup>A. D.</sup>  
Genoa, named Christopher Columbus, born in the <sup>1445.</sup>  
year 1445, who had made the science of geography  
a part of his studies at the university of Pavia,  
conceived an opinion that it would be possible to  
reach India by steering right across the ocean  
towards the west: "because," said he, "the  
world is like a ball: India lies far to the east; it  
perhaps extends round nearly to Europe." In  
addition to this, he had seen, on his voyage to the  
Azores, that a particular kind of reed, carved  
wood, and bodies of remarkable formation, were  
driven on the land from the west. Columbus  
applied to the government of Genoa to furnish  
him with ships to try this passage; but the  
Genoese merely offered excuses. He next  
laid his schemes before John the Second of  
Portugal; but there he received most dishonour-  
able treatment: the commission was given to  
another, who returned without any discovery.  
In the year 1484 Columbus went to Spain,  
and applied to Ferdinand and Isabella, where,

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**A.D.** after he had been kept in a state of uncertainty  
**1492.** for five years, he was at last on the point of starting for England, when he was detained by a person in the confidence of Isabella, and in the year 1492 he was provided for this great undertaking with only three small ships and ninety men. The king and queen entered into a written agreement to appoint Columbus viceroy of all the land he could discover, and to settle the tenth part of the proceeds on him and his heirs for ever. On the 3rd of August he set sail. At first his crew were all in high spirits; but when they came into unknown seas, when their provisions were growing short, and when for weeks together their eyes had rested on nothing but sky and water, they became mutinous and threatened to throw him overboard. Columbus appeased their first discontent; but afterwards it broke out again, and he was obliged to promise that, if they did not see land in three days, he would turn back. But on the second night afterwards they saw a light, and, on the 12th of October, they landed, with unspeakable joy, after seventy days' voyage, on the island of Guanahani, which was very fruitful, but inhabited by naked savages, and afforded no gold. Love of gain induced the crew to proceed further; and, in order to discover the gold region, Columbus sailed first to the south, and landed on Cuba, also a very fruitful country, but without gold. Afterwards they reached Hispaniola, or St. Do-

mingo. Here they found a race of native princes, and heard of cannibals on the neighbouring islands. To defend St. Domingo against the cannibals, Columbus erected a fortress, and garrisoned it with thirty-eight Spaniards, who, at their own request, remained behind, while Columbus made sail for Europe, and that with all haste, for his ships were in want of repair, and his stores were exhausted. He sailed on the 4th of January, 1493, and after a rough and dangerous voyage, arrived in Spain, and was received with great and universal rejoicings. The king appointed him to be Governor-General of *India*, for it was still imagined that the newly-discovered countries formed a part of the East Indies. Ships and men were soon found ready to undertake another voyage, and on the 25th of September this second expedition sailed. On the 2nd of November they discovered the Caribbean Islands from Dominique to Porto Rico ; but as yet no gold was found. The colony left at Hispaniola had been destroyed ; for the greedy Spaniards had made themselves so obnoxious to the natives that they had murdered them all. Columbus founded a second colony, and, to satisfy his crew in their quest of gold, he again set sail, and discovered Jamaica ; but still no gold was found, and the little they were enabled to wring from the inhabitants by force was far from contenting their rapacity. A party, thus rendered dissatisfied, returned to Spain, heaping calumnies

A. D. on Columbus, who was obliged to appear at the  
1494. Spanish court, in 1494, in order to refute his accusers. He had some difficulty in obtaining another fleet, and it was not till the year 1496 that he again set sail, and, steering yet further to the south, discovered the island of Trinidad, on the stream of the Orinoco. He now perceived that he had at length reached a large extent of land, and became eager to trace a passage to the Indies; but sickness, and the dissatisfaction of his men, compelled him to steer to Hispaniola. Here he was scarcely able to quiet the mutiny and discontent of the Spaniards, and a party formed against him made a formal complaint to the Spanish court, that he had endeavoured to make his men slaves in this new country. Accordingly, a Spanish nobleman, named Bovadilla, was appointed to supersede Columbus in the command; and this officer actually sent the great discoverer of a new world in chains to his country. This was in the year 1500. It is true that Columbus, immediately on his arrival, was set free, and Bovadilla deposed, but of all the promises so solemnly made him not one was kept. Still Columbus was bent on another attempt to discover the passage to the Indies, and he sailed, in the year 1502, with four but indifferent vessels, and arrived at the narrowest part of the new world, near Portobello, but found no passage through the Isthmus of Darien; and, after suffering a fearful storm, he escaped with difficulty to Jamaica, in 1503.

Here probably he would altogether have perished, if two brave men who belonged to his crew, named Mendez and Fieschi, had not hazarded a voyage in canoes, and brought back a ship from Hispaniola. This vessel, however, did not arrive till six months had elapsed, during which time Columbus had suffered severely from hunger, sickness, and the disobedience of his crew, though nothing but his prudence and management had saved them from perishing by starvation. In the year 1504 A.D. he returned to Spain. Isabella had just died, and Columbus begged in vain of Ferdinand to fulfil the conditions he had so solemnly promised. It had even come to pass that the whole discovery, now it was actually made, was regarded as a matter too easy to be meritorious. Columbus died in 1506 at Valladolid, and was buried in great state at Seville; but his remains were afterwards carried to Hispaniola, in the town of St. Domingo; and, according to his own express desire, the chains with which he had been fettered were laid beside him in his grave. The first perfect account given of the newly discovered country was that written by Americus Vespucci, who claimed the merit of first discovering the continent of the New World, and hence this new quarter of the globe received the name of America. The islands between North and South America were called the West Indies; and, since that time, the ancient Indies, in the south-eastern part of Asia, have been called,

A. D.  
1503.

in contradistinction, the East Indies. Australia, and the Islands of the Pacific Ocean, were not discovered till the 18th century.

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## CHAP. LII.

### FURTHER DISCOVERIES—BRAZIL—PERU.

A. D. 1500. ALMOST every year was now signalised by some new discovery. In the year 1500 A.D., Brazil, in South America, was discovered by Cabral during a voyage for the Cape. This possession was at first little prized by the Portuguese; but at a later period it derived great value from its gold, diamonds, and coloured woods.\* In the meantime the Spaniards continued an indefatigable search for gold countries, and because they could not succeed, they compelled the poor inhabitants of the West Indies to submit to the severest labours to produce them treasures. If any seemed obstinate, dogs were even set to attack them, while others were shot down or cut to pieces, and their princes were burnt to death. It was in vain that an excellent man, named Las Casas, endeavoured to restrain these acts of cruelty; in their lust for gold, and the barbarity

\* In the present century it served from the years 1808 to 1824 as a refuge for the royal family of Portugal.

of their nature, the Spaniards scoffed at his most touching appeals, and at last, in his desire to save the feeble Indians, he unfortunately proposed to buy some strong negroes in Africa and bring them over. This was the beginning of the detestable slave trade, which is not yet entirely abolished. A. D.  
1510.

In quest of a land of gold, a bold adventurer named Balboa penetrated on foot far into the country ; and, after a journey beset with dangers and hardships, he discovered, in 1513, that sea on the other side of the continent which Columbus had declared must exist. But a cowardly villain, who was sent out as his superior officer, took offence at Balboa, and put him to death, and made no further attempt to investigate this newly-discovered route to India. In the year 1510 Ferdinand Cortez came to Mexico, and to secure the dependence of his followers, he persuaded them to burn their ships ; he then marched straight on to the capital, which he took, and soon after captured Montezuma, the king. Shortly after this he succeeded in bringing over to his interests an army which the envious governor of Cuba had sent to attack him. Meanwhile a revolt had occurred in Mexico ; the people had killed their own king ; and Cortez was himself obliged to retire after a great loss of men. With courage still undaunted he again assembled an army, and on the 13th of August, 1521, he a second time conquered the city. In 1536 Cortez discovered the Peninsula of California, but in 1547 he died

**A.D.** of a broken heart at the ingratitude evinced by  
**1519.** his master.

During these occurrences Ferdinand Magellan had sailed, on the 10th of August, 1519, from Seville, to find, if possible, a passage to India. He went to Brazil, crossed the mouth of the great La Plata, and passed the winter of 1520 in St. Julian, where he observed the unusual stature of the Patagonians; and on the 21st of October, in the same year, he effected this long-wished passage through those straits now called the Straits of Magellan. On the 28th of November, the Spaniards, under Magellan, sailed from these straits into the open ocean, thinking that India could not be very widely separated from America, and they could reach it in a few days. It proved, however, that with even the most favourable winds the passage occupied three months and twenty days. In this time their provisions failed, and they suffered incredibly from hunger. At last, on the 6th of March, 1521, they discovered the Ladrone Islands, and after these the Philippines: here, on the 27th of April, Magellan was killed in a skirmish. Of the five ships with which he originally sailed, only two remained seaworthy; in these the crews again set sail, and, to the astonishment of the Portuguese, reached the Moluccas by sailing from the east. Here another ship was declared unfit for service; and in the last remaining ship only eighteen Spaniards, the remains of a crew of 235, had the good for-

tune to reach Spain, being the first men who had ever sailed round the world. When they landed they wrote on their ship "Saturday, September the 6th, 1522 A.D.," and were not a little surprised to hear on land that it was reckoned Sunday, the 7th of September. It follows, however, quite naturally from the diurnal revolution of the earth on its own axis, and its annual course round the sun, that he who sails round the world towards the west must, on his return home, count one day less; but he who circumnavigates the world to the east must reckon one day more. A. D.  
1522.

At last, Francisco Pizarro, a man of great military enterprise, conquered, in the year 1530, the long-desired gold land of Peru; and here an immense quantity of gold was really found. The Inca (that being the title of the prince of Peru) offered for his ransom a room full of gold; a room twenty-two feet long, and sixteen feet wide. Each common soldier received a sum equal to about 10,000 dollars; and pieces of gold were played and gambled away like pence of the present day. Every one now was bent on reaching Peru, and the Peruvians were treated with no more regard than mere animals; for the love of gold caused an utter forgetfulness of all laws, and of the eternal obligations of justice and humanity between man and man. The Spanish government at length interfered; and in the year 1546 they sent to Peru a man of high talent and integrity named Pedro de la Gasca. This



A. D. 1546. man restored the laws to their former vigour, established order, and mitigated the severity of the slavery to which the Peruvians were condemned. He then liberally rewarded all his followers, collected a sum of more than a million sterling for his sovereign, and left Peru; himself actually poor, but admired and almost worshipped by all who knew him. The Spanish colonies, however, never flourished to the present day; for rich and beautiful as were those countries, agriculture was but little regarded, there were few factories of any importance, and the trade was in the hands of foreigners. Their rulers followed their own will and caprice, and the laws were feebly administered. When the old royal family in the mother country was deposed, however, it proved the commencement of a new era with those colonies. Since the year 1809 several had refused to obey the mother country: some desired complete national independence; others limited their opposition to the new royal family. After the restoration of the ancient royal family in 1814, this contest still continued, but is now almost wholly at an end; for through the inability of Spain to reduce her colonies to subjection, Cuba and Porto Rico alone have remained attached to the mother country. The other Spanish American provinces have been, after much bloodshed, acknowledged as republics, which are, however, constantly waging sanguinary wars among themselves. America furnishes us many productions,

some of which are peculiar to it and were unknown before its discovery ; others have been introduced from the old world, and are returned to us in large quantities. Europe first received from America potatoes, quinine, indigo, cochineal, vanilla, cacao, and maize ; and cotton, sugar, coffee, rice, &c., have been produced there more abundantly than they were before.

By the marriage of Ferdinand of Aragon and Isabella of Castile the small kingdoms of Spain were united ; and in 1492 the Arabian kingdom of Granada was conquered, and the Moorish inhabitants, then the most industrious people in Spain, compelled to leave it. They migrated to North Africa, whence they retaliated the injuries of the Spaniards by plundering their ships and ravaging their coasts. This was the origin of these piratical states. Ferdinand's only daughter, Johanna, was married to the son of the Emperor Maximilian I. of Germany, and from this marriage sprang Prince Charles, who as the Emperor Charles V. and King Charles I. of Spain, united the Spanish and Austrian dominions into one Empire, which, in connexion with the American provinces, had not its equal in extent, but which afterwards fell rapidly to decay.

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## CHAP. LIII.

THE PORTUGUESE IN INDIA—THE DUTCH—  
THE ENGLISH.

A. D. 1505. IN the East Indies, the Zamorin of Calicut, supported by the Mahomedans, opposed the Portuguese with a large force. On the other hand, a king of Cochin, who was at enmity with the Zamorin, exerted himself in the cause of the Portuguese, who built a fortress, which Pereira, with only 150 men, defended for five months with surprising ability against the whole army of the Zamorin. Since the year 1505 the Portuguese had founded many colonies; and in 1506 they opened a trade in cinnamon with the island of Ceylon, and endeavoured to deprive the Mahomedans altogether of the commerce of India. Albuquerque conquered Ormuz in the Persian Gulf, a town which had long been the principal rendezvous of their commerce. This town, however, he was obliged to give up for a time, till in 1510, as viceroy of the East Indies, he had conquered Goa, and in the year after, Malacca and the Molucca Isles, and had also reduced Calicut into subservience. Then Albuquerque suddenly made another descent on Ormuz, which surrendered in the year 1515. He died before Goa, and his memory is held in universal

1518.  
A. D. 1518.  
veneration. In the year 1518 the trade with China was opened, the Portuguese being rewarded for a victory over a formidable pirate by  
\*a grant of the small island of Macao. Tea, though now considered the most valuable part of the produce of China, was unknown in Europe till after the year 1600, and now the annual importations of tea amount to 20,000,000 of pounds weight; in return for which the Chinese receive several million crowns of silver. Tea is also now cultivated in East India, and appears to prosper. From China the Portuguese at length became acquainted with Japan, a state consisting of several islands in the enjoyment of some civilisation and proficiency in the arts. The Japanese gave a friendly reception to these first Portuguese adventurers, and a profitable trade was opened in gold, fine copper, camphor, and other commodities.

These large possessions in Asia raised Portugal to the rank of one of the richest states in Europe, but its decline was no less rapid than its rise. In 1580 Spain and Portugal formed one government; but the Dutch, having nobly won their liberty against the tyrannical government of Spain, conquered one Portuguese settlement after the other in the East Indies. The Cape, Ceylon, Trincomalee, Malacca, and the Moluccas became the possessions of the Dutch in the year 1600. The power of Holland, however, was crushed through repeated wars; and

ever since 1740 the naval power of England has increased. The English have, since the year 1756, conquered a large Empire in the East Indies; and many possessions, formerly Dutch, which, since 1795, had gradually fallen into the power of the English, were formally ceded to them in the year 1814.

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## CHAP. LIV.

### INTRODUCTION OF GUNPOWDER.

WAR is one of the severest calamities that can befall the race of man; nevertheless, so long as a selfish or ambitious spirit sways the hearts of nations and of princes, even those kings who are naturally devoted to peace are compelled to turn their attention to the most effectual means of defence. The weapons of ancient nations were javelins, lances, bows and arrows, slings, and swords. The defences used against these weapons consisted of helmets, coats of mail, and shields. The use of these, as compared with modern weapons, required a higher degree of personal courage, and wars were carried on with greater bitterness and animosity. The art of throwing to a distance stones or red-hot balls of iron had been discovered before the Christian era; but gunpowder was an invention of much later date, and though

apparently known to the Chinese and Arabians <sup>A.D.</sup> long before the Europeans, still it was not by <sup>1300.</sup> these nations used in warfare. In the year 1300 a German monk, named Barthold Schwartz, happened to try the experiment of placing some powder in an iron tube closed at one end, with a stone on the top of the powder, which he ignited by a hole at the closed end; and thus the stone was projected a considerable distance. This was the kind of cannon generally used in the wars which occurred about the year 1400; they were then called mortars, which at the present day are only used to throw bomb-shell. This clumsy weapon suggested the idea of hand-guns, which also appear to have been a German invention. These guns were at first only small portable cannon, and were fired by means of a match. At a later period, namely, in the year 1517, the German firelock was discovered: this consisted of a stop-cock with a pebble screwed into it, before which a steel wheel was fixed; this wheel was made to revolve with great rapidity, and thus strike sparks from the pebble. At last, the French discovered the stop-cock with the pan, and substituted a flint for the pebble; thence the gun itself is often called in German "Flinte." Gun-flints are chiefly made from the flint of France, though some may perhaps be found in other countries, and indeed have been collected from beds of flint found in Holland and the Tyrol. Great improvements have been made in cannon,

A.D. 1517. guns, and pistols, since their first invention ; and all these instruments have been improved both in convenience and safety. The introduction of guns into the art of war brings the bodily strength of the soldier less into requisition, and renders warfare less ferocious.

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## CHAP. LV.

PAPER—PRINTING—ENGRAVING—AND  
VARIOUS INVENTIONS.

THE discoveries which we have now to describe bestowed far greater benefit on mankind.

*First*, Paper made of linen. Before the Christian era, the leaves prepared from the Egyptian papyrus reed formed the usual writing material ; then parchment was discovered, made of tanned skins of sheep or goats, artificially smoothed and polished. Subsequently to the Christian era, paper was made of cotton ; this was a discovery of the Chinese, which was learnt from the Bockharians by the Arabians, from the Arabians it reached Constantinople, and from thence it spread to Italy and the rest of Europe. Cotton paper was thinner and more convenient than parchment, but was extremely expensive. The Spaniards were thus induced, in the year 1200 A.D., to try paper of cotton rags, and thus effected a material

saving in expense. Last of all, the Germans, about the year 1300 A.D., succeeded in manufacturing paper of linen rags; and now the article could be supplied not only at a cheaper rate, but also of a much finer and more useful quality. In the present century, machinery has been invented by which paper is made not in sheets, but on cylindrical rollers, and cut to any length that may be required. A.D.  
1300

*Secondly*, about 1300 A.D., George Amalfi improved the compass so much that the position of a ship at sea could be determined with tolerable accuracy; and it was this invention that rendered the subsequent discoveries of distant regions possible.

Our knowledge of America, of the passage by the Cape of Good Hope to India, and the circumnavigation of the world, all depended on the perfection of the compass.

*Thirdly*, the art of Engraving. This is also a German invention, which originated in the following manner. Some monks had cut out the figures of various objects on wooden blocks, and after covering them with a black composition, took an impression of this outline on paper, and then painted them by hand. This art came into more general use when cards were introduced into Italy from the Arabians. To paint each card separately took a considerable time, and to obviate the difficulty, a German, in 1350 A.D., cut out a set of cards in wood. The cards could now be



A.D. 1360. printed off with great facility, and therefore, unfortunately, they came into such general use, that even in the year 1360 card-playing was a favourite amusement with the peasantry of Würtemberg. Since the year 1400 it has been one of the principal amusements of France; and most of our fashionable games are of French invention. The art of engraving became still more important as it extended to woodcuts in single letters, and at last to whole pages, for impressions on paper. This method of printing was far preferable to the repeated copying of whole books, but still it was very slow and tedious; this, therefore, led to —

*Fourthly*, the art of Printing. This art was unquestionably known very early in China, but till the year 1436 A.D. it remained a secret to Europe. It was then discovered by John Gutenberg, a native of Mayence, by his own unassisted invention. He made the first experiment at Strasburg, with a printing press of his own invention; but in the year 1440 he found that it was more convenient to cut the letters separately, and after arranging his type to touch them with ink and then take his impressions. In the year 1450 he formed a partnership with a rich man of Maintz of the name of Faust, who advanced all the necessary funds. The partners took to assist them one Peter Schoffer, a clergyman very celebrated for his beautiful hand-writing. It was Schoffer who discovered the art of casting type;

and also the composition of metals required, which <sup>A.D.</sup> should be sufficiently hard to bear the press without <sup>1455.</sup> any tendency to cut the paper; he also discovered printers' ink. About the year 1455, appeared the first work ever printed with cast and movable types; this book was a Latin Bible. Guttenberg, however, and Faust disagreed; and in the year 1456, they dissolved partnership. Guttenberg died two years after, without having received any reward for his labours, though he had devoted all his energies, and all his fortune, to this admirable invention. The appearance of these beautiful cheap-printed Bibles created great sensation; but the monks, long accustomed to earn considerable sums as copyists, were loud in inveighing against the introduction of printing, and one and all accused Faust of having dealings with the devil. This accusation, monstrous as it appears to us, found general credence, because Faust had kept his art a secret. In the year 1462, Maintz was conquered, and most of Faust's companions were dispersed, and carried the art of printing with them, widely diffusing it throughout Europe, though Italy was the country where it was chiefly cultivated. Printing on stone, or lithography, was invented at Munich between forty and fifty years ago. The objects to be engraved—letters, figures, maps, musical notes, &c.—are drawn with chalk or ink upon smooth stone slabs on which aqua-fortis is poured, so that the white parts are corroded away, and the drawing

A.D. remains in relief. This is then covered with  
1500. ink, and put under the press.

*Fifthly*, the art of Book-binding. At one time books consisted merely of one long roll of parchment. Afterwards they were sewn together in sheets; but from the nature of parchment only a limited number of leaves could be fastened together on account of the thickness. It was not till the discovery of paper that means were found of connecting any large number of leaves; and the art of book-binding was by no means complete till the year 1500 A.D. This art is now brought to its highest perfection in England.

*Sixthly*, the art of Copper-plate Engraving. This consists in cutting out figures on a copper-plate, adding a colour, and taking impressions, and was discovered in Germany before 1450 A.D. Albert Dürer, about the year 1500, taught the art of etching with aqua-fortis, one part of the copper-plate being prepared with a mixture calculated to resist the effect of the acid. In 1543, a Hessian, of the name of Lewis, of Siegen, discovered mezzotinto. A copper-plate is made rough by cutting transverse and diagonal lines; it is then covered over with a black composition. Where the picture is designed to be bright, the rough part is made smooth; where merely a light shadow is required, the plate is smoothed in a less degree; and where a deep dark shadow is wanted, the plate is left perfectly rough. There is reason to hope that still further improvements

in this department of the art will be introduced. <sup>A. D. 1800</sup>  
 One of the latest discoveries of this kind is the art of producing the wonderfully accurate pictures called Daguerreotype, from Daguerre, a Frenchman, the inventor, who found means to prepare metal plates so skilfully that the action of light upon them of itself produced the picture.

*Seventhly*, Spectacles were invented by "Alexander Spina," a Florentine, about the end of the thirteenth century; and the power of glasses has been gradually raised to the perfection displayed in telescopes.

*Eighthly*, Steam-engines. The employment of steam as a motive power has exercised the greatest influence upon navigation. It was first employed in manufactures, in stationary engines, soon afterwards to the propelling of vessels on rivers and on the sea, and finally to the locomotive engines on railways, by which immense burdens can be carried along safely at the rate of forty miles an hour.

One of the most recently discovered powers of nature is that of the electro-magnet, which was speedily applied to electric telegraphy, by which the most distant places may be brought into almost instantaneous communication. This discovery was thought so important that telegraph lines were within a very short period formed all over Europe and North America.

## CHAP. LVI.

REVIVAL OF LEARNING—JOHN HUSS —  
WICKLIFFE.

A. D. 1378. THE Crusades, the extension of commerce, the art of printing, and the discoveries by the Spaniards and Portuguese, excited a spirit of enterprise throughout Europe, called forth the energies of man, and rendered the interchange of thought and the diffusion of knowledge far easier than in earlier times. Italy was the country where science and commerce principally flourished, tending, in no slight degree, to diminish the authority of the Pope. Even in Rome the papal power was now losing its influence; and the princes, whose dominions lay out of Italy, began to indulge in greater freedom and latitude of speech. In the year 1378 divisions arose, and for forty years sometimes two or three popes were reigning at the same time, whilst the grossest vices prevailed among the Roman Catholic priests. The people, however, had been so long accustomed to honour the Church and her ministers, that in spite of various provocations they remained for the most part true to the Pope. On the other hand, an intense spirit of inquiry had arisen among the scholars of the day—a spirit greatly encouraged

by the Universities established about 1200, both A. D.  
1200. in Italy and Paris. These inquiries soon led numbers to the conclusion that the doctrines of popery were in many points both erroneous and unjust; and this opinion soon received a powerful and forcible expression from a distinguished individual, by whom it was gradually spread throughout Europe. Wickliffe, at Oxford, awoke to a sense of the injustice of popish pretensions, and led his pupils back to the Bible itself as the fountain of truth. These principles extended as far as Prague; and when, in 1400, John Huss propounded similar doctrines, so numerous were his listeners, that at last he ventured to preach a sermon attacking the Pope, who, in the year 1411, had ordered that a general indulgence should be granted to sinners of all descriptions who were in a position to pay for its purchase. When, in defiance of the order of the Archbishop of Prague, John Huss had recommended the study of the writings of Wickliffe, he was accused of heresy, and excommunicated by emissaries from the Pope. Huss now retired to his native village, and there continued his instructions; thence he was summoned to Constance to appear before a large assembly of the Church in 1414, and the Emperor Sigismund promised to escort him in safety. Huss came, propounded his doctrines, and quoted scripture to establish their truth. His doctrines, however, were evidently hostile to popery, so Huss was thrown

<sup>A.D.</sup>  
<sup>1415.</sup> into prison, and in the year 1415 A.D. was burnt alive, as a heretic with whom it was unnecessary to keep faith. In 1416, his friend Hieronymus met a similar fate, and that in the identical place. These persecutions violently exasperated the Bohemians, and for twenty years the followers of Huss avenged themselves in every possible way on all popish adherents.

The conquest of Constantinople by the Turks, in the year 1453 A.D., produced a great effect on the whole of Europe. Many Greeks had taken refuge in Italy, from the fear of the barbarous hordes of Asia, and were received by the Italians with great hospitality. Florence, which was honoured by the presence of the most learned of these Greeks, was an object of envy; and soon there was not a town in Italy which could not boast of at least one Greek to explain the writings of his countrymen. Thus, by the constant perusal of the Grecian poets, orators, and philosophers, the revival of learning was greatly assisted. The power of the Church was continually on the decline, and in the year 1500 all Italy was ripe for the subversion of the popish dominion and doctrines. In Germany, however, the literature of ancient Greece produced for a long time no perceptible effect, and the spirit that prompted the Reformation seemed as yet to lie dormant.

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## CHAP. LVII.

THE REFORMATION — LUTHER — MELANCTHON  
—ZWINGLE.

GERMANY was the land in which the great Reformation commenced. Martin Luther was born <sup>A. D. 1483.</sup> at Eisleben on the 10th of November, 1483; and was at first retiring and diffident from the severity of his early education. In the year 1501, Luther matriculated and entered at the university of Erfurt, with the intention of studying the law; but, averse to the busy strife and contention of forensic life, he in 1505 entered a convent. There he became exceedingly melancholy, till in the year 1508, on account of his learning, he was summoned to fill a professor's chair at the university of Wittemberg. In the year 1510 he made a journey to Rome, and there, to his greatest astonishment, he became acquainted with the extravagances of the Pope and Cardinals, which tended no little to shake his belief in the papal infallibility, and caused him to commence a diligent study of scripture, where he soon discovered numerous doctrines utterly irreconcilable with the tenets of popery. In the year 1516 a monk of the name of Tetzel made a journey through Saxony, selling indulgences for all kinds of crimes to any sinner who could pay for the purchase.



A.D.  
1516. By this means a large sum of money was brought to Rome from various countries and from multitudes of people, who were, of course, no little encouraged in sin by the shameful delusion that money could procure the pardon of the Most High. Luther regarded these proceedings of Tetzel with great indignation, and in 1517 he drew up, at Wittemberg, ninety-five sentences, in which he set forth that the sale of indulgences was wholly unjustifiable, and a mere invention of the Pope to draw money to Rome. Leo the Eleventh, who was at that time Pope, summoned Luther before him. Luther was, however, protected by the lord of his principality, Frederick the Wise. The Pope then, in 1518, sent an ambassador to Germany, who called upon Luther to recant; this Luther refused, and, justifying his religious opinions, wrote a letter to the Pope. A second embassy was sent, in 1519, from Rome, with instructions to treat with Luther in a spirit of conciliation, which had the effect of making him the more disposed to concessions; but when he discovered that preparations were at the same time making to take him as a prisoner to Rome, he not only defended his former opinions, but further asserted that the power assumed by the Pope was utterly without foundation either in the word of God or the writings of the ancient fathers. In 1520 the Pope placed Luther under the ban of excommunication. But Luther publicly burnt the Pope's bull, and called upon

the whole German nation to abjure the usurpations of Rome, to suppress monasteries, and no longer to require celibacy of the priests. Several princes joined in this protest. In 1521 an imperial diet was held at Worms by the Emperor Charles the Fifth, and Luther was obliged to appear to make his defence. He appeared, however, under the safe-conduct of the Emperor, and explained before that numerous and august assembly the doctrine which he held, adding, that he would revoke all he had ever advanced against the papacy if his opinions could be refuted from the Bible; otherwise, said he, "I cannot recognise the Pope as the infallible and supreme head of the church, for he has already committed many errors." This courageous speech was followed by a declaration of outlawry against him, which was, however, not made known till, by the secret contrivances of the Elector of Saxony, Luther had been safely lodged in the Wartburg. From this retreat he propagated his doctrines in numerous publications; but the place of his concealment was not discovered. His most important work was the translation of the Bible. In 1522 he appeared unexpectedly in Wittemberg, where many innovations had been introduced in his name, of which he did not at all approve. In the meantime the sentence of outlawry had been forgotten, and the doctrine of Luther had spread far and wide, even beyond the territories of Saxony, and most especially in Hesse. In 1524

A. D. 1525. he laid aside his monastic dress; and in 1525 he married Catherine Bora, who had once been a nun. In 1528 he wrote both his larger and smaller catechisms.

Meantime the Roman Catholic princes exclaimed loudly against these heresies; and although, in 1526, they tolerated the Lutheran service, they ordered mass and other usages of Roman Catholicism to be still observed. It was also forbidden to make any more converts to the new doctrines. Against these restrictions the Lutherans strongly "protested," and for this reason they obtained the name of Protestant. In 1530 they made a declaration of their faith at Augsburg; but the new doctrines were, in that city, condemned as heretical, and their diffusion forbidden under the severest penalties. On the other hand, the Lutheran princes joined together in a treaty of mutual assistance at Schmalcalden; and it is very probable that war would have followed between the two parties, had not the Emperor Charles the Fifth required the assistance of the Protestants against the threatened invasion of the Turks in Hungary. In 1532 the exercise of the Protestant religion was openly allowed, and several other demands conceded to the Reformers. This victory won many adherents to the Protestant cause, and many Lutheran congregations arose even in the states of the Emperor. All this the Emperor regarded with a very unfavourable eye; but although the Pope continually urged him

to action, Charles was obliged to endure it, for the <sup>A.D.</sup> Turks were then invading his territories. In <sup>1541.</sup> 1542 he promised for the second time peace to the Protestants, though secretly he was making preparations for war.

Luther did not live to see the bloodshed which was to result from the work he had begun, but died in his native town Eisleben on the 18th of February, 1541. His body was carried to Wittenberg, and there buried in the castle church. One of his most faithful friends, and one whose counsels he often followed, was Melancthon, though during the later years of his life Luther's opinion of him underwent some change. Melancthon was too gentle and conciliatory to please Luther, who at times was disposed to be impetuous and severe. Indeed his impetuosity proved rather unfavourable to the propagation of his doctrines. Henry the Eighth, King of England, for instance, was so offended at Luther, that the English Church, though separating from the Romish, refused to join the Lutheran.

In Switzerland another person arose to dispute the doctrines of popery, namely, Zwingli, by whose advice the mass was abjured, the pictures cleared away from the churches, and the celibacy of the clergy abolished. Zwingli differed from Luther in the interpretation of one passage only in Holy Scripture. In the year 1529 an attempt was made to unite them on this point, but in vain; each held fast by his own

<sup>A.D.</sup>  
<sup>1529.</sup> opinion, though resolving there should be no interruption to their friendship. Still Luther, shortly after, wrote against Zwingle, and pronounced him a heretic, upon which the adherents of Zwingle separated from the Lutherans and took the name of Reformers.

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## CHAP. LVIII.

## THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR.

<sup>A.D.</sup>  
<sup>1555.</sup> IMMEDIATELY after the death of Luther, war broke out between the Protestants and Roman Catholics. At first, the Protestants were extremely unfortunate; but they were eventually successful, and obtained religious toleration by the treaty of Augsburg, in 1555. Still the hostile feelings of the two parties were not yet appeased; and these animosities were encouraged by the Jesuits, who, since the year 1540, had materially assisted the cause of the Roman Catholic religion, by a life of great self-devotion, though too often by the sacrifice of sincerity and truth. This Society of Jesus (for such was the name assumed by a society established in 1534 by a fanatical Spaniard named Ignatius Loyala) employed all its influence to resist the adoption and diffusion of the doctrines of Luther. This mutual hostility at length broke out in the Thirty Years' War, which commenced at Prague and was also brought

to a conclusion at Prague. The Emperor Matthias, who ascended the throne in 1612, ordered that one Protestant church in Bohemia should be pulled down, and another closed. Of this the Bohemians complained at the court, but received only threats in reply. Incited by this harsh treatment, on the 23d May, 1618, they told the imperial counsellors at Prague they would dispense with their services, and in a tumult that arose afterwards threw them out of the window; they then drove the Jesuits out of the town, and took up arms in their own defence. In 1619 the Emperor Matthias died, and was succeeded by Ferdinand the Second, who was much hated in consequence of his hostility to the Protestants. The Bohemians therefore elected Frederick, the Elector Palatine, for their king; but he proved of a vain and ungovernable character, and in 1620 he was defeated by the imperial troops, and obliged to fly. Next year he was outlawed, and his lands declared forfeited; the whole of Bohemia was reduced to the Austrian yoke, and the Roman Catholic religion was by force reestablished. Although now no enemy remained in the field, the imperial troops still lingered in a threatening attitude on the boundaries of Lower Saxony. The Saxons were therefore compelled to arm, and Christian the Fourth undertook the command of the troops, but was defeated by Tilly at Lutter near Bahrenberg. Wallenstein's bands, who lived by plunder, fell upon Holstein, and the

A.D.  
1612.

A.D. 1630. king was obliged to fly to his islands. Wallenstein now devastated the country on the shores of the Baltic, drove away the Duke of Mecklenburgh, and persuaded the Emperor to give him the duchy; he was, however, obliged to retire from Stralsund. In 1629 a peace was arranged with Denmark, and the Emperor, now victorious over the Protestants, passed the Edict of Restitution, which demanded from the Protestants that all the churches and monasteries which had been taken from the Roman Catholics since 1555 should be restored. The Protestants, powerless to help themselves, now turned to Gustavus Adolphus, King of Sweden, and begged his assistance. By this time, Wallenstein by his predatory excursions had incensed the Roman Catholics no less than the Protestants; and at an assembly of princes in Regensburg, in the year 1630, the Emperor was obliged to dispense with a portion of his army, and to depose Wallenstein, who resigned his command with suppressed indignation, and retired to Bohemia, where he lived in princely splendour, quietly watching his opportunity to be revenged on the Emperor.

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## CHAP. LIX.

## THIRTY YEARS' WAR—WALLENSTEIN—GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS.

ON the 24th of June, 1630, Gustavus Adolphus <sup>A.D. 1630.</sup> landed in Pomerania. Gustavus was the greatest general of his age, and a truly religious sovereign ; but though the Protestants had invited him over, they had not as yet full confidence in him, and Brandenburg and Saxony were hostile to him. Gustavus soon drove the imperial troops out of Pomerania ; and Saxony, which had been attacked by Tilly for opposing the Edict of Restitution, was obliged to call in to its aid the King of Sweden, whom the Saxons at first treated with contempt. Brandenburg he compelled to join him. Meanwhile Magdeburg, one of the most important of the Protestant cities, had been captured by Tilly, on the 10th of May, 1631, and sacked under circumstances of revolting cruelty ; the number of persons massacred is estimated at 30,000, and Tilly himself wrote to the Emperor that there had been no such slaughter since the destruction of Troy and Jerusalem. Gustavus Adolphus had not been able to come to its assistance, in consequence of being detained by the affairs of Brandenburg and Saxony : but he now hastened to Saxony, and there, on the plains of Leipsic, he defeated the



<sup>A D.</sup>  
<sup>1631.</sup> imperial general, Tilly, the victor of six-and-thirty fights, on the 7th Sept., 1631. After this victory he penetrated further into the country, and delivered the Protestants of Franconia from the tyranny of the Emperor, conquering Mayence, winning the Palatinate, and making his way into Bavaria. At the same time the Elector of Saxony had made an incursion into Bohemia and taken Prague. The thought that Vienna might have to sustain a siege must have occurred to the Emperor, as he had no standing army, and, since Tilly had fallen, no general in Bavaria, and his attention was therefore directed again to Wallenstein; but the proud spirit of this general rejoiced to see his Emperor so humbled, and he refused at first to take the command; and at last, when strongly pressed to do so, he proposed the most unreasonable conditions. These, however, the Emperor was obliged to grant, and thus Wallenstein became commander-in-chief of all the imperial forces, and that so entirely without control, that the Emperor reserved to himself neither the right to dictate to Wallenstein, nor to decide on the movements of his own army, and even the disposal of the conquered territories was to be left entirely to Wallenstein. He was soon at the head of an army. The Saxons were driven out of Bohemia, and Gustavus Adolphus was compelled to retire from Bavaria, into which country he had already advanced as far as Munich. On the 6th of November, 1632, the hostile armies

met at Lutzen: the Swedes were victorious, but their victory was dearly purchased, for it cost them their king, Gustavus. After this defeat General Wallenstein had marched his army back into Bohemia; and here, by an unseasonable cessation of hostilities and secret negotiations with the Swedes, he awakened the suspicions of the Emperor, who was readily persuaded to believe that Wallenstein had a design on the crown of Bohemia. Wallenstein was assassinated at Egra, on the 25th of February, 1634. A.D.  
1632.

For a short time after the death of Gustavus, the Swedes, under Bernhard, Duke of Saxe Weimar, still continued victorious; but on the 7th of September, 1634, they sustained their first defeat on German ground, near Nordlingen, and were obliged to fall back on Pomerania. In 1635 several Protestant princes, especially the elector of Saxony, determined on making peace with the Emperor. But at that moment the French declared war against him, and Bernhard, supported by the treasury of France, conquered Alsace in 1638. The Swedes, too, had again penetrated into the country, defeated the Saxons, and taken up their position in Silesia. The Emperor now proposed terms of peace, although he had all along been expecting and hoping the fortune of war would change, and place his enemies at his mercy; but no sooner had the French been defeated and the Swedes withdrawn their troops to Denmark, than he

A.D. 1645. forgot the treaty he had proposed. The French, however, soon made new conquests, and, crossing the Rhine, they advanced into the heart of Bavaria. The Danes were soon reduced to subjection, and in the winter of 1645, Torstenson, the Swedish general, was again defeated in Bohemia. And now the Emperor was really negotiating conditions of peace both at Osnabruck and Munster, but still almost every article required an appeal to arms to enforce it. But when the French had lost all patience by these repeated deceptions, and had returned in the greatest fury and laid waste Bavaria, and when the Swedes had also taken and pillaged without mercy a large suburb of Prague, the Emperor gave way to his fears, and signed the treaty of the peace of Westphalia on the 6th of August, 1648. The Elector Palatine was reinstated, the Protestants were allowed the public exercise of their religion, and obtained equal privileges with the Roman Catholics, against which the pope vainly protested. A part of Pomerania was given to Sweden, and Alsace to France. Switzerland and Holland were declared independent, and as all the conquered colonies were conceded to Holland, that state now stood at the summit of its greatness. Germany, however, was terribly devastated, and the sword, famine, and pestilence, had converted whole tracts of land into a wilderness. Heaps of ruins and of ashes, towns and villages overthrown, covered that once

flourishing country, and even where a town was still left standing, many of the houses were desolate and forsaken. A.D.  
1648.

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## CHAP. LX.

## THE FRENCH PROTESTANTS—HENRY IV.

THE members of the reformed Church of France had been increasing in number ever since the middle of the 16th century—notwithstanding the oppressions to which they had been subject; and when Charles IX. married his sister to King Henry of Navarre, the head of the Huguenots (as the reformers were called), it was supposed that all persecution of them would cease. On the contrary, however, a treacherous design had been formed against them, and on the night of St. Bartholomew, the 24th of August, 1572, an attempt was made to murder them all. The massacre began at a given signal and lasted for three days, during which nearly 60,000 victims perished, and Henry himself only escaped by pretending for a time that he was willing to adopt the Roman Catholic faith. At a later period, however, he stood up manfully in defence of his principles and Protestant rights; but when, in the year 1589, he was next heir to the throne, the Roman Catholics refused to acknowledge him as their sovereign. It is true that Henry in 1590 won a battle against them; still Paris closed her

A.D. 1593. gates against her conqueror, and, unwilling to reduce his Parisian subjects to the extremities of famine, he raised the siege. And now force and generosity proved equally unavailing, and in Henry's opinion one means only remained to give peace to his country, and that was apostacy. In the year 1593 he embraced the Roman Catholic religion, Paris opened her gates, and he no sooner entered the town than he generously pardoned all who had taken part against him. After quieting the whole of Roman Catholic France, he secured the religious freedom of the Reformers by the Edict of Nantes, passed in 1598, and found means to obtain the assent of his Roman Catholic councillors. He now sought every means of diffusing prosperity throughout his dominions; he encouraged agriculture, reduced taxation, planted mulberry trees, and introduced the breeding of silkworms, and he also gave increased facilities to commercial intercourse, and endeavoured, by his own example, to recommend simplicity of dress. No sooner was he free from war himself, than he took a pleasure in settling the disputes of his neighbours, and more especially entertained a project of humbling the tyrannical power of Spain, having formed the noble design of establishing a lasting peace among all nations; but notwithstanding all his philanthropic intentions, Henry IV. was assassinated by a fanatic named Francis Ravallac, on the 14th March, 1610. One blessing fell to the lot of Henry, which

monarchs can rarely call their own, namely, a true and noble-hearted friend, the faithful Sully. <sup>A.D. 1610.</sup> What, perhaps, is rarer still, Henry always permitted that friend to speak with candour and without disguise; or if a momentary feeling of impatience was awakened in him, it soon passed away, and was followed by a reconciliation which never failed to make the friends still more fervent and affectionate than before. Henry's successor, Louis XIII., and his minister Richelieu, oppressed the Protestants of France, but, in order to weaken the Spanish-Austrian power, assisted the German Protestants with money and troops.

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## CHAP. LXI.

## LOUIS XIV.

LOUIS XIV. was grandson of Henry IV., and <sup>A.D. 1643.</sup> reigned from the year 1643 to 1715. His reign was the most brilliant in the history of French kings, but by no means the most beneficial to his country. Louis was naturally fond of war, and was himself a brave warrior, with many great generals to act under his command. Louis humbled Spain and Austria, reduced the power of Holland, and became master of the sea. He was at the zenith of his power in 1685; and in 1688, though every state bordering on France united

A. D. 1701. with England against him, he still continued victorious, and in 1697 concluded a peace of which the terms were dictated by himself. In 1701 arose the war which is commonly called "The War of the Spanish Succession." Louis aimed at making his grandson Philip of Anjou king of Spain, in opposition to Charles of Austria. Whereupon England, Austria, and the Netherlands formed an alliance, called the League of Augsburg, which Louis was unable to resist; he was at a loss both for money and commanders. The exhausted finances of his country caused general distress and domestic tumult; but Louis obtained peace, on rather favourable conditions, and his grandson kept possession of the crown of Spain. Louis XIV. died in the year 1715, in the seventy-fifth year of his age, not without expressing repentance for the offences of his life, but by no means lamented by his subjects. In the year 1685 he had revoked the Edict of Nantes, and the Protestants had been compelled, by measures of extreme cruelty, to return to the Roman Catholic religion. Religious persecutions caused thousands to emigrate, and these the most intelligent and valuable of his subjects. The reign of Louis XIV. is nevertheless accounted a brilliant era, from the stimulus afforded to commerce, trade, and manufactures, and his liberal patronage of the arts and sciences. In this reign the French language attained to such a state of perfection, that it was adopted as the language of every court

in Europe, and in many it remains so to this day. <sup>A.D. 1715.</sup> Notwithstanding all the misfortunes which the government of Louis produced, he was not, as compared by the standard of the morals of his day, by any means a vicious man. His heart was set upon greatness, and he not only desired a great, but a brilliant reign, and thus he was betrayed into a course of action tending rather to the personal glory of the monarch, than the welfare of his subjects. In manner and appearance Louis was a perfect gentleman, and fond of being received with courtesy and honour, consequently he was soon surrounded with flatterers; but he was not impatient of contradiction, even though it sometimes assumed the form of rather plain and homely truth.

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## CHAP. LXII.

### RUSSIA — PETER THE GREAT — CHARLES XII. OF SWEDEN.

RUSSIA is at present the most powerful of the nations in the north of Europe and Asia, and the foundation of its greatness was laid by Peter the Great during the years 1689 and 1725. Peter was elected Emperor in 1682, though only ten years of age; but his ambitious sister, Sophia, succeeded in supplanting him for a time, and she even meditated his assassination. Peter, however,



A.D. 1689. retired to the village of Preobaschenscoe, and, with the assistance of Lefort, formed a regiment of his schoolfellows, and compelled Sophia to retire to a convent. His first business now was to drill the undisciplined Russian soldiers by the rules of European warfare. This was, however, resisted by the Strelitzes, who had constituted the aristocratic life-guard of the former emperors; and having been the party instigated by Sophia to murder him, they still remained turbulent and unquiet. Besides these disadvantages, Russia possessed neither navy nor commerce. Peter built the first ships the Russians ever possessed, and even made a journey to Archangel on the White Sea, to encourage the people in ship-building. Still it was indispensable for the commerce of Russia that it should have the command of harbours either on the Baltic or on the Black Sea. On the Baltic the harbours were in the possession of the Swedes; and on the Black Sea, of the Turks; and these nations were to be dispossessed by nothing less than war. After one unsuccessful attempt in 1695, Peter made a conquest of the town of Azow on the Don, and the first Russian fleet was seen on the Black Sea. Meanwhile the Strelitzes, who had been deprived of their commissions, entered into a conspiracy to murder the Czar on the 2nd of February, 1697. These conspirators had already assembled to carry their design into execution, when two of their number betrayed the plot. Peter, by a secret

note, gave directions to an officer to surround their place of meeting at eleven o'clock at night, and take all of them prisoners. But the hour he intended to specify was ten o'clock, and at half-past ten he went to the house where the conspirators were assembled; and stepping in suddenly amongst them, accompanied by only a single officer, he drank and conversed with them in the most affable manner, till one of the party, thinking the proper opportunity had arrived, gave the signal for the attack. Peter perceived it, sprang forward, and struck the chief conspirator to the ground. At that instant the first stroke of eleven was heard: the guard, as appointed, entered the room, and the conspirators were all taken prisoners.

A. D.  
1697.

Peter became more and more convinced that to carry all his designs into effect, Russia must first become acquainted with the arts and sciences familiar to the rest of Europe; and he, therefore, commenced in 1697 a journey through Germany, Holland, and England. He preferred not to travel in the character of emperor, and declined all the pomp and ceremony with which Frederic III., Elector of Brandenburg, was so desirous to receive him. In Holland he assumed the dress of a common ship-carpenter, and went through every part of the work as an apprentice. He also visited the workshops of all able and scientific mechanics, in order to learn their respective trades. His friendly and affable manners won the hearts

A.D. 1698. of numbers, and he induced workmen in various branches to come over and settle in Russia, in order to spread among his subjects a knowledge of the arts and workmanship of Europe. From England especially Peter led away a large number of workmen. Even after his return home, the Czar worked hard at the lathe and the forge ; and on one occasion, after forging eighteen bars of iron, he sold them like any other workman, and with the proceeds he bought a pair of shoes, which he was very fond of exhibiting in society. He also practised surgical operations, and with his own hands tapped the wife of a Moscow merchant, afflicted with the dropsy ; and extracted several teeth besides. Thus he acquired sufficient knowledge to detect unskilful surgeons, and punished all who proved to be practising without proper qualification for their profession. In 1698 Peter was in Vienna when a second revolt of the Strelitzes called him back to Moscow, where he was so incensed that he ordered out one thousand of the rebels for execution.

In his last journey Peter had formed an alliance with Poland and Denmark, having for its object the conquest of the country on the Baltic from the Swedes. But Charles XII. of Sweden, a young and warlike prince, soon reduced the Danes to terms of peace ; and in the same year (1700) he defeated a large army of the Russians, and, conquering Poland, put the king Augustus to flight in 1702.

Peter meanwhile took advantage of the absence of Charles XII., and conquered all the coast of the Baltic from the Gulf of Finland as far as Prussia, and in 1703 founded the city of St. Petersburg. In 1708 Charles XII. made another attempt against Peter's dominions, and, spreading terror wherever he advanced, expected to win Moscow itself. But now his provisions failed, and the Ukraine, on which Charles depended for assistance, remained true to Peter. A battle was fought at Pultowa, in 1709, at which Charles was wounded, and the Swedes were completely overthrown. Charles next excited the Turks against Peter, and soon the small army of the Czar was surrounded by 200,000 Turks, and his situation seemed entirely hopeless, when, at the suggestion of Catharine, whom he afterwards married, an attempt was made to bribe the Turkish general. The attempt succeeded, and Peter abandoned the town of Azow, and saved both himself and his army, (1711.) Charles lingered among the Turks in the hope of exciting them to another campaign, but in vain. Peter in the meantime secured himself in the possession of his conquests on the Baltic, and after Charles's death he obtained, by the peace of 1721, Liefland, Esthland, Ingermannland, and a part of Finland.

In the course of this war Peter had made a second journey through Europe during 1716 and 1717, endeavouring by his example as well as commands to extend the knowledge of foreign

**A.D.** 1725. acquirements, and teach the Russians the manners and customs of civilised countries. He dispensed with the custom of falling down in homage to the Czar ; enforced the wearing short coats instead of the long mantles before in use, ordered the long beards of the men to be shaven off, and caused women to enter more into general society ; he also caused many books to be translated into the Russian language, and founded many schools. Peter the Great died 28th of January, 1725.

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## CHAP. LXIII.

### PRUSSIA.

**PRUSSIA**, the smallest of the powerful kingdoms which flourished in the eighteenth century, owes its aggrandisement to the Elector Frederic William the Great, who reigned during the years 1640 — 1688. His victory over the Swedes near Fehrbillin, in 1675, first rendered his name glorious. He colonised and enriched his provinces with the French Reformers who had fled from Paris, and at the same time encouraged the arts and sciences. His son, Frederic I., who reigned between the years 1698 and 1713, assumed in 1701 the title of King. Frederic William I. was the very pattern of economy, and a true father to his people. He followed

the practice of his grandfather, in filling his dominions with industrious foreigners. He assembled a powerful and disciplined army, and left at his death a well-filled treasury. Frederic II. knew how to avail himself of his father's acquisitions; and when Maria Theresa of Austria refused to resign some Silesian principalities which justly belonged to Prussia, Frederic in 1741 conquered the whole of Silesia; and by a treaty of peace the Empress was obliged to resign the whole territory. She, however, secretly meditated revenge, and formed a confederacy with Russia, Saxony, France, Sweden, and several German states against Frederic, who was supported only by England and two small German principalities. Hence arose the seven years' war, from 1756 to 1763. Frederic marched against his enemies, and in 1756 took the whole of the Saxon army prisoners, won a victory near Prague in 1757, and, though defeated at Collin, he gained in the same year several other splendid victories; one over the French, near Rosbach, a second over the Austrians, near Leuthen, and a third over the Russians, near Zorndorf, which eventually drove the enemies of Prussia from her territories. On the other hand, his defeat near Cunersdorf, the plundering of the enemy, and the desperate exertions of all the powers of the land, so weakened him that in 1760 the hopes and wishes of his enemies were well nigh crowned with success. However, in January 1762 Elizabeth of Russia died, and her

A. D.  
1740.

A.D. 1762. successor, Peter III., united the forces of Russia to those of Prussia, and, though he died in July, his wife Catherine II. made peace with the King. France, for want of money, was unable to continue the war, and therefore, in 1763, a general peace was concluded with Frederic II. without his yielding one foot of land. Having now won for his country the respect of all foreign powers by war, Frederic endeavoured by good laws and the establishment of manufactories to increase its power and independence..

Frederic II. died on the 17th of August, 1786, a pattern in some respects for all the sovereigns of his age.

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## CHAP. LXIV.

### THE BRITISH NAVY—SHIPPING—COMMERCE— AND DISCOVERIES.

GREAT BRITAIN has now a more powerful navy than any other nation, and her merchant vessels sail in every known sea. The foundation of this extensive power was laid by Queen Elizabeth, between the years 1558 and 1603. At that time Spain was the first kingdom in Europe; the vessels of Spain brought over the precious metals of America, and the Portuguese transported to Europe the merchandise of India. But the per-

secutions exercised by Philip II. upon the Protestants of the Netherlands hurried them on to revolt. Elizabeth seized this opportunity of assisting the Netherlands: seven of those provinces declared themselves independent of Spain, and, since 1579, have formed the state called Holland, under their own government. From this time the English and Dutch sought every opportunity of breaking the power of the Spaniards. They ventured even with small vessels on voyages to the East and West Indies, and also to America; and generally returned heavily laden with valuable booty. Sir Francis Drake accomplished the second voyage that ever was made round the world; the first being that, already described, of Ferdinand Magellan, in 1522. To avenge all these acts of hostilities at a single blow, Philip II. equipped a formidable fleet, called the Invincible Armada, designed utterly to crush the power of England; but, in every engagement, the lighter vessels of the English did considerable damage among the larger and less manageable ships of the Spaniards; and, in 1588, by the merciful interposition of Providence, a storm arose, which favoured the valour of the English, and utterly destroyed this proud work of men's hands. From this epoch the power of Spain gradually declined, and the spirit of enterprise before dormant in England awoke. Instead of mere expeditions for plunder, a flourishing trade arose, the foundation of British prosperity, which has ever since been increasing.

A.D.  
1579.



**A.D.** In 1651, Cromwell, the Protector, gave a new  
**1651.** impulse to the commerce of Britain by the Navigation Act, the effect of which was, that no nation should be the carrier to England of any freight but the productions of its own respective soil or manufacture. This tended much to impair the commerce of Holland, consisting, as it did, chiefly of the carriage of foreign commodities, and the naval power of England was greatly augmented in a short space of time. Although, in 1688, William, Prince of Orange, and Governor of Holland, became King of England, the English merchants successfully resisted every attempt to make even the least alteration in the navigation laws in favour of the trade of Holland. Since Louis XIV., and all his ministers and generals, sought for military rather than for naval glory, the naval power of France was comparatively neglected, and since the same line of policy was followed by his successors, England had little to check the extension either of her shipping or her commerce; and attained a high and commanding position in the rank of nations, without even the necessity of winning it by her arms; and in other respects the British enjoyed general prosperity between the years 1714 and 1740.

The year 1740, however, saw the commencement of hostilities between England and France, which continued, with only brief intermissions, till a late period, producing in the English greater energy and enterprise, and an increased sense of

the value of her independence, and also of the importance of securing every possible advantage in domestic and foreign commerce. A.D.  
1762.

In the course of the seven years' naval war, between 1755 and 1762, the English won Canada, in North America, from the French, and also Florida from the Spanish; and in the peninsula of India, where the French and English merchants had previously conducted their several commercial establishments on a good understanding, each now endeavoured to damage the interests of the other; and the French were almost driven out of India in 1761. The British espoused the cause of certain native princes, and were rewarded for their services both with territory and treasure. The result of this connection was, that, by the superior strategy and policy of Europeans, several princes became dependent on the British. The Indians, however, soon complained of oppression, especially Hyder Ali, of Mysore, who, supported by the French, became a formidable antagonist between 1779 and 1783. Hyder Ali eventually recovered all the territory of which he had been deprived, and bequeathed it, at his death, to his son, Tippoo Saib. The English, however, in 1792, succeeded in forming an alliance with several Indian princes against Tippoo Saib, and deprived him of a third part of his dominions; and, in 1809, the town of Seringapatam was taken, and the whole kingdom of Mysore, with all its treasures, fell into the hands of the British. Thus

A.D. 1748. a society of English merchants, by the name of the East India Company, obtained command of a country, which is at least double the extent of all the British possessions in Europe.

The Dutch, it is true, still retain some possessions in the East Indian Islands; and the French, Portuguese, and Spanish, have some beautiful islands and fruitful territories in South America and the West Indies; still, as the English have the command of the sea, no other vessels but British are permitted to trade in East and West Indian produce, and this the Germans obtain almost exclusively from the English merchants. The English have also invented a variety of ingenious machinery, which gives them a facility in the manufacture, and therefore the principal trade, in woollen and cotton stuffs, steel and iron wares, and in various other articles. The steam-engine, for example, is the invention of the English, and to them also may be ascribed the more accurate knowledge of different parts of the world that is now possessed.

James Cook, among others, a man of humble birth, and originally a common sailor, rose by his talents and energy of character to the command of a vessel, and made three voyages round the world. In 1768 Captain Cook sailed round the south point of Cape Horn, through the Straits of Le Maire into the South Sea, investigating more especially Otaheite and New Zealand; and, after examining the coast of New Holland and New Guinea, he returned to England in 1771.

On his second voyage Captain Cook made still further discoveries between 1772 and 1776. The most important result of his observations was a satisfactory report that no greater extent of land towards the South Pole existed than had been already discovered. In the summer of 1744 Captain Cook penetrated through icebergs further south than any European had ever sailed, till a field of ice, extending further than the eye could reach, put a stop to his further progress. On his voyage home he discovered several islands, among which were New Caledonia and South Georgia, covered with eternal snow. Those islands lying between Asia and Africa, of which the principal is New Holland, are called by one common name, Australia, meaning Southland, because they lie for the most part in the Southern hemisphere. In 1776 Captain Cook sailed, for the third time, to discover whether any northern passage existed between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. Sailing round the Cape to New Holland and Otaheite, and thence northwards, he discovered the Sandwich Islands; explored more completely Behring's Straits between Asia and America, but came at last to impenetrable fields of ice, and observed reflections in the heavens showing nothing but ice northwards. He then returned to the Sandwich Isles, where he was killed in a skirmish with the natives, 14th February, 1779. Captain Cook in his second voyage was accompanied by two Germans, named Reinhold Forster, and his son, George Forster.

A.D.  
1776.

## CHAP. LXV.

## BRITISH COLONIES IN NORTH AMERICA.

**A.D.** **1620.** THE eastern coast of North America was colonised by the English in 1583, and that part of the country which was first brought into civilisation was called Virginia. In the year 1620 a number of Puritans, emigrating from their native country, founded New Plymouth and the State of New England, and in 1632 a third party of settlers went over and peopled Maryland. All these colonists received a written declaration that they should remain in the enjoyment of the same rights as in England, and under these favourable circumstances the states they had founded immediately flourished. The first occasion on which they became sensible of their advantages, and fully availed themselves of them, was when the French opposed their settling on the river Ohio, and thus compelled them to take up arms in their own defence. As soon as England recognised the importance of her colonies, she endeavoured, after 1763, to place some restrictions on their independence. The colonies were forbidden to establish manufactories; duties were imposed on articles of consumption; and in 1765 they were ordered to use stamped paper from England.

These restrictions excited universal dissatisfaction. The Americans avoided all commerce with England, and were not even induced by the cheapness to purchase their wares. The consequence was that in 1766 the manufacturers and the merchants of England complained of a dreadful stagnation in trade, and it was found necessary to repeal the Stamp Act. But to compensate for this loss of revenue, a duty was laid in 1767 on glass, paper, colours, and tea. At the same time the Americans made an agreement to receive no goods of English manufacture, and at different places the custom-house officers were ill-treated. In 1769 the English sent troops to America, to make prisoners of the discontented, and to send them to England for trial.

Still the Americans would have no dealings with England. Many manufactories were closed, and the duties were obliged to be taken off. One duty only remained, a duty of threepence a pound on tea, and the Americans, therefore, renewed their commerce with England for every article except tea. The English now allowed the export of tea to be duty free, and thus were enabled to sell it at a cheaper rate than the Americans could buy it of any other country. They were, however, still forbidden to land it; and in 1773 three hundred and forty-two chests of English tea were thrown into the water at Boston. And now the time was come for trying to reduce the colonists to obedience by force,

A.D.  
1766.

A.D. but they determined on defending themselves.  
1776. They formed thirteen smaller assemblies of the colonies, and one chief assembly, meeting at Philadelphia. In 1776 they declared themselves a free republic, wholly independent of England; and, supported by all those European powers which had hitherto secretly envied the greatness of England, they maintained their declaration by several victories; and in 1783 England was compelled to recognise the "Independent United States of North America." The General of the United States in this war was Washington. The representative of the Colonies in London, their negotiator in Paris, and the legislator of Pennsylvania, the principal State, was Franklin, who, in early life, had been a journeyman printer. Franklin had also acquired great celebrity by the invention of the lightning conductor, an invention which was founded on a discovery that electricity and the fluid of which lightning consists are the same. These states contained some years ago twenty millions of inhabitants, and the population is rapidly increasing. The forests which formed the ancient hunting grounds of the American Indians are transformed into fruitful soil, and new towns are being built every year. But in free America negro slavery is not yet abolished.

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## CHAP. LXVI.

## FRENCH REVOLUTION — NAPOLEON.

THE great debts contracted by Louis XIV. were still more increased by his successor Louis XV.,<sup>A.D. 1774.</sup> whose reign unfortunately extended from 1715 to 1774. The whole country was exhausted, and the sovereign actually carried on a usurious traffic in corn. Louis XVI. was a very amiable monarch, and was anxious to relieve the country from all possible burthens, but he had not the advantage of able ministers and financiers. The national debt increased, and the taxes became more oppressive. To assist himself and his people, the King called a National Assembly. The people, inspirited by the opportunity presented of giving a free expression to their feelings, demanded that the noblesse and the clergy should bear their fair share of the burthens. Incited by their apprehensions, both of these classes made a pretence of yielding, but indirectly excited the people to make further demands, and in a more imperious manner, and at the same time they represented to the King that those demands amounted to rebellion. The King in his alarm brought foreign troops near Paris, and dismissed the popular favourite, Necker, in 1789. Hereupon the people took up arms in



**A.D.** their own defence, and on the 14th of July they  
**1789.** conquered the Bastile. Nobles and priests took to flight, the King and the royal family were brought prisoners from Versailles to Paris, and when the nobles had excited Austria to war, and the King had made an attempt to escape, he was placed in closer confinement. The monarchy was now at an end. In 1792 France was declared a Republic; and on the 21st of January, 1793, the King was guillotined. His queen, Maria Antoinette, the daughter of the Empress Maria Theresa, met a similar fate. The European powers now entered into a coalition against France, but the enthusiastic Republicans conquered every enemy upon their frontiers, and, after a ten years' war, obtained peace on most favourable terms: even England, powerful as she was, was obliged at the peace to give up all her conquests in the war. During all this time France was experiencing horrors and misery from civil commotions. Robespierre, Danton, and Marat committed during 1793 and 1794 the most cruel murders on all who were loyally disposed, or declared to be so by their enemies. Whoever displeased any man in power was immediately guillotined.

These men fell in their turn, but the more regular government of the Directory which succeeded them was feeble and inefficient.

Napoleon Bonaparte, a Corsican, who had gained the confidence of the French as general of their armies in Italy and Egypt, now succeeded,

by boldness and decision, in placing himself at the head of affairs ; and the country, exhausted by the violent internal agitations and incessant wars in which it had been engaged for ten years, rejoiced that a man had at last appeared who was able to restore order and the authority of the laws. At the close of the year 1799 three Consuls were chosen, of whom Bonaparte was the First ; but in reality his power was almost unlimited. On the 18th of May, 1804, he was unanimously elected Emperor of the French ; in 1805 he became King of Italy, and was crowned at Milan with the ancient iron crown, and in 1806, when the German Empire was dissolved, he was made Protector of the Rhenish Confederacy. Several of the German princes, who consented to join this confederacy, were rewarded by the full sovereignty of their dominions, at least as far as was consistent with Napoleon's supreme power, and Bavaria, Wurtemberg, and Saxony were made kingdoms.

In a few years Napoleon had established such an empire as the world had scarcely ever seen ; he ruled over nearly all the countries of Europe, and set up and dethroned their kings by his will alone. England was the only country that maintained complete independence. For France he had done much ; he restored it to a state of tranquillity, drew up a code of laws, and re-established divine worship, and, above all, brought his army to such a state of discipline that the best forces of the continent were unable to withstand them when

A.D.  
1806.

A.D.  
1805. led on by Napoleon in person. Several powers opposed his schemes of aggrandisement. Austria was quickly conquered; and in 1805, after taking prisoners General Mack and a body of 25,000 men, he entered Vienna, and then gained the great victory of Austerlitz over the Austrians and Russians united, and dictated the peace of Presburg. The Prussian armies were routed in the following year; and the armies of Russia were several times defeated in 1807, so that Alexander was obliged to accept the terms of the peace of Tilsit, by which Prussia lost the half of her dominions. In the same year the Portuguese royal family fled to Brazil, after Portugal had been conquered by the French. The throne of Spain was given to Joseph Bonaparte, the brother of the Emperor, and that of Naples to Joachim Murat, his brother-in-law. Two other brothers, Louis and Jerome, were made kings of Holland and Westphalia, and one of his marshals, Bernadotte, Crown Prince of Sweden, though really against the wish of Napoleon. He was the only one of these sovereigns who kept his place after Napoleon's fall.

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## CHAP. LXVII.

### NAPOLEON'S CONTINENTAL SYSTEM.—THE CAMPAIGN OF 1812.

As England could not but feel herself endangered by the enormous power of Napoleon, she endea-

voured from time to time to urge the continental powers to make war upon him, and Austria was in 1809 induced to try her strength once more against this formidable foe. The issue of the contest was, however, again unfortunate for her, and at the peace of Vienna she lost a large portion of territory ; about the same time, too, Holland and the States of the Church were declared parts of France.

A. D.  
1825.

As the marriage of Napoleon had been childless, he now had himself divorced from his first wife Josephine, and married in 1810 Maria Louisa, the daughter of the Emperor of Austria, who had a son, named at his birth the King of Rome.

Napoleon had now attained to a dazzling height of greatness, but he did not much longer rejoice in the favour of fortune. Spain, supported by the English with large resources of men and money, struggled with various fortune to resist King Joseph, who had been forced upon her, and Russia got into a dispute with Napoleon, and began to arm against him. With a view of weakening the power of England, he had endeavoured to injure her trade by what he called his Continental System, by which no English vessel was allowed to enter a harbour of his or any of his allies. Russia suffered most by this system, and endeavoured to evade it, and this, and many acts of violence on the part of the French, occasioned a rupture between the two powers.

A D. 1812. In the summer of 1812 Napoleon crossed the frontier and entered Russia, with an army of half a million of excellent soldiers, strengthened by auxiliary forces from Prussia, Poland, Austria, and the Confederation of the Rhine. He defeated the Russians in several engagements, and in a few months advanced to Moscow, the ancient royal city of the Czars. Here, however, the tide of fortune, which had borne him victoriously through so many bloody battles, began to turn. A tremendous conflagration burst out in Moscow, and the winter set in very early and with great rigour; and at the same time the forces of Russia were increasing in numbers and strength. The fire of Moscow, by some ascribed to design and the self-devotion of the Russians, and by others to the carelessness of the French soldiery, soon drove Napoleon from his quarters; and without having again encountered his enemy, or accomplished even the semblance of a negotiation—for the Muscovites abandoned their city, and not a soul appeared either to defy or conciliate the conqueror—Napoleon was obliged to give the word to march back to France. On his retreat the severity of the frosts of Russia, and an enemy always ready either to contest each pass or press upon the rear, destroyed almost the whole of his immense army.

Russia, Prussia, and Austria, now formed a confederacy, which was joined by Sweden and some of the German princes. On the 18th of

October, 1813, the allies won a glorious victory at Leipsic ; on the 31st March, 1814, the Emperor Alexander and Frederick William III. made their triumphant entry into Paris. On the 3d of April Napoleon was deposed, and the island of Elba assigned as his future residence for life. Louis XVIII. was restored, and by the terms of a general peace, settled at Paris, France was limited to her ancient boundaries. Most of the princes and ministers now assembled in congress at Vienna to settle the relations of Europe ; but on the 1st of March, 1815, Napoleon left Elba, landed in France, and, being joined by the greater part of the army, was soon once more a formidable opponent. Louis XVIII. was obliged to leave Paris, and Napoleon immediately entered it. Austria, Russia, Prussia, and England renewed their alliance, and their numerous armies crossed the Rhine. On the 18th of June Napoleon was totally defeated on the plains of Waterloo by the allied armies of England and Prussia, and was again obliged to leave his capital in the hands of his conquerors. Escape being impossible, he surrendered to a British man-of-war, and was sent as prisoner for life to the island of St. Helena, where he died on the 5th of May, 1821.

Another general peace was concluded at Paris in November, 1815 ; and most of the sovereigns of Europe entered into what was called the Holy Alliance, with a view of maintaining tranquillity, and preserving the balance of power.

A.D.  
1815. France, besides renouncing her lately won territory, had to restore the treasures of art of which she had robbed other nations, to pay seven hundred millions of francs to the expenses of the war, and to have 150,000 foreign soldiers quartered in the country for three years.

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## CHAP. LXVIII.

### THE SPANISH-AMERICAN COLONIES.

SINCE the peace of 1815 no great general war has been kindled in Europe, but a year has seldom passed in perfect tranquillity. The first disturbance occurred in Spanish America. The Spanish colonies, which had never been well treated by the mother country, began, on the accession of Ferdinand VII., a long struggle for independence. In 1816 Buenos Ayres declared itself free, and in 1819 Bolivar secured the independence of the republic of Columbia, which subsequently divided itself into three states — those of Venezuela, New Granada, and Ecuador. In 1820 an insurrection broke out in Mexico, and two years afterwards the Mexicans proclaimed their general Iturbide Emperor. He was however soon driven from his empire, and Mexico became a republic, as had also Guatemala in Central America, in 1821. At present the island of Cuba is the sole possession

left to the Spanish crown. The former Spanish colonies have had much to suffer from domestic disturbances and civil wars, but they are making progress, and trade and agriculture are carried on in a very superior manner to that prevailing under the Spanish rule, by which every kind of improvement was checked. A.D.  
1821.

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## CHAP. LXIX.

### DISTURBANCES IN VARIOUS COUNTRIES.

IN Germany many promises had been made to the people by their rulers, in order to excite them to rise against the empire of the French — which afterwards, when that purpose had been effected, were not fulfilled, and this had occasioned so much discontent that in 1819 a congress of ministers was held at Carlsbad, with the view of concocting measures to suppress it. A.D.  
1819.

In Spain the people had, during the time when their royal family was detained in France, carried on with the help of the English a very persevering and ultimately successful war against the French rule, and by the Cortes constitution of the 19th of March, 1812, had freed themselves from absolutism in the government; but when Ferdinand VII. was restored to his kingdom, he rejected this constitution, and reigned by arbitrary authority, under the influence of the clergy and of the



A.D. 1821. *Camarilla*, a body of nobles and courtiers of the old absolutist character.

Great discontent arose in the country, but no open attempt at resistance was made until 1820, when a body of troops was assembled at Cadiz, with the purpose of attempting the re-conquest of the revolted American provinces. Under the guidance of their colonels Quiroga and Riego, these troops refused to embark, and demanded the re-establishment of the constitution, to which the king was compelled to agree, and took an oath to that effect. In the meantime, however, a congress of the great Powers, held at Verona in 1822, had determined that a French army should be sent into Spain, and under its protection the King of Spain was restored to despotic authority.

This proceeding, instead of tranquillising the country, gave occasion to long and sanguinary civil wars, and only after the death of King Ferdinand, during the reign of his daughter, was there any return to order, or any improvement in the state of the country.

In Portugal similar scenes had been taking place, and similar attempts had been made to alter the constitution of the country by military force.

The Portuguese royal family had, on the invasion of the French in 1807, fled to Brazil, and had settled there; but in 1821, when the Spanish constitution had been proclaimed in Oporto and Lisbon, King John VI. returned,

and recognised it. The Queen and her son Don Miguel, however, with the help of the military, overthrew it again in 1823. The Crown Prince, Don Pedro, the eldest son of the king, had remained behind in Brazil, and been chosen Emperor there (October 1822).

After the death of his father John VI., he succeeded to the crown of Portugal, but made it over to his youngest daughter, Donna Maria, whom he intended to marry to his brother Don Miguel; but the latter seized on the crown for himself in 1828, and reigned in the most absolute manner.

The most terrible scenes followed this usurpation; it was a real reign of terror. In the year 1832 Don Pedro renounced in favour of his brother the Imperial crown of Brazil, landed in Portugal, and with the English and French in Oporto, drove out his tyrannical brother, and undertook the government for his daughter, who afterwards reigned peaceably till her death in 1854.

In Italy a society had been formed, under the name of the *Carbonari*, the object of which was to unite all the Italian States into one nation. In 1820 the Neapolitan army revolted under their leader, General Pepe, and demanded the Spanish constitution; and the king thereupon resigned the government to his son, and both together took an oath to observe it. When, however, the Emperors of Austria and Russia and the King

A.D. 1822. of Prussia were assembled in congress at Laybach, the King of Naples complained to them, that both in his resignation of the throne, and his oath to the constitution, he had acted under constraint, and the monarchs then sent an Austrian army to replace him on the throne, and restore him to absolute power. In Piedmont a similar attempt to introduce the Spanish constitution was put down even more rapidly by Austrian bayonets.

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## CHAP. LXX.

### REVOLT OF GREECE AGAINST THE TURKS.

THE Turks, who in the year 1355 had crossed the Hellespont from Asia to Europe, and in 1453, under their Sultan, Mahommed II., conquered Constantinople, had greatly oppressed the Greeks, who made the majority of the population of Turkey, and persecuted them much on account of their religion. The more the Greeks advanced in civilisation, the more intolerable became to them the yoke of their oppressors, and in the year 1821 they made an attempt in Moldavia, under the leadership of Prince Ypsilanti, to throw it off. The insurrection was suppressed, though at first the Greeks had been successful, but a more determined struggle now took place in the Peninsula of Morea and on the islands,

and the Greeks were driven back into their fortresses. A.D.  
1821.

In the places where the Turks formed the majority, and especially in Constantinople, they committed the most detestable cruelties on the defenceless Greeks; and when at last they found that in Livadia, Thessaly, and the Morea, they could not overpower their desperate resistance, they called to their assistance Ibrahim, the son of the Pasha of Egypt, who ravaged the whole of the Morea, and in 1825 took the well defended Missolonghi, and the city of Athens. Notwithstanding the help it had received from various quarters, the cause of Greece appeared lost; for the superiority of the united Turkish and Egyptian forces was too great for them to contend against. In order to put a stop to the ravages of Ibrahim, England, France, and Russia, jointly attacked and destroyed the Turco-Egyptian fleet at Navarino (1827); and the following year a French army landed in Greece, and compelled Ibrahim to quit it. At the same time the Emperor Nicholas of Russia declared war against the Turks, and his armies advanced to Adrianople, where, in 1829, the Sultan was obliged to conclude a peace.

Russia acquired some territory in Asia, and great influence over the enfeebled state of Turkey. Greece obtained its independence, and in 1833 a sovereign of its own, in the person of Otto of Bavaria.

## CHAP. LXXI.

## FRENCH REVOLUTION OF 1830.

**A.D.** **1830.** **WHILST** the French in 1830 were occupied abroad with the conquest of the piratical state of Algiers, a revolution broke out in the heart of France itself. Charles X., who had, in 1824, succeeded his brother on the throne, joined the party of the nobles and priests, and endeavoured by violent proceedings to enforce a return to the state of things that had prevailed before the Revolution. He abolished the freedom of the press, and by various arbitrary measures violated the constitution. The Parisians flew to arms; the King and the Ministry refused to yield, troops were called in, and three days of street-fighting ensued (July 28—30, 1830); the people turned their houses into fortresses, formed barricades in the streets with waggons, beams, and the stones torn up from the pavement; the National Guard vigorously attacked the King's troops, and whole regiments of the line passed over to the people. After a loss of 6000 men on the two sides, the royal family and the ministers were compelled to leave Paris, and a provisional government was formed, by which the elder branch of the Bourbons was deposed and banished, and Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans, placed on the throne, under the title of King of

the French. The deposed king fled first to England and then to Austria, where he subsequently died of the cholera; while insurrections and attempts on the life of Louis Philippe soon evinced that the tranquillity established in France was only apparent. A.D.  
1830.

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## CHAP. LXXII.

### REVOLUTIONARY MOVEMENTS IN OTHER COUNTRIES.

THE second French revolution, like the first, found imitators in other countries, and the example was first followed in the kingdom of the Netherlands. The political union of Holland and Belgium into one kingdom in 1815 had produced no real union between the inhabitants of those countries, especially as in Holland the majority professed Calvinistic Protestantism, and in Belgium a large proportion was Roman Catholic. The Catholic clergy constantly opposed the government, and the Belgian people imagined that the interests of the Dutch were opposed to theirs in the administration of affairs. In August, 1830, the storm burst forth in Brussels, and soon spread over the whole country. French emissaries did their part in stirring up strife, and a bloody street fight, like that which had occurred in Paris, now took place in Brussels. The

**A.D.** Dutch were driven out of the city and out of  
**1830.** Belgium, with the exception of the citadel of Antwerp, which was defended by the brave General Chassé. In October the Belgians declared themselves independent, an armistice was soon afterwards concluded, and in December the independence of Belgium was acknowledged by the European States. In June, 1831, Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg was called to the Belgian throne; but soon after his accession the Belgians were attacked and defeated on all sides by the Dutch. The Dutch were afterwards defeated in their turn, and, with the aid of the French, driven out of Belgium. Several years passed before Holland was induced, by an assembly of European ministers in London, to consent to a peace; but since that period Belgium has been happily and peacefully engaged in developing her industrial resources, under a good and wise king, who is faithful in his observance of the constitution.

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## CHAP. LXXIII.

### THE POLISH INSURRECTION.

**THE** Poles were less fortunate than the Belgians in their struggles for independence. After many partitions of the kingdom of Poland by Russia,

Austria, and Prussia, its very name had disappeared until 1815, when what was then called the A.D.  
1831. Grand Duchy of Warsaw was restored to the rank of a kingdom, and placed under the protection of the Emperor Alexander of Russia, receiving at the same time a sort of independent constitution. The Grand Duke Constantine, brother of the Emperor, was created Vicegerent; but he and his Russian court greatly oppressed the people, whose long-cherished hatred at length, in November, 1830, broke forth into open insurrection. The Grand Duke and his followers were obliged to quit the capital, the Poles elected a provisional government, and appointed General Chlopiski Dictator, and when he resigned his office they declared their independence. Reconciliation was now out of the question.

The Russian army, under General Diebitsch, could at first effect little against the valiant resistance of the Poles, especially as Polish partisans were exciting insurrections in their rear in Lithuania and Volhynia. In May, 1831, the battle of Ostralenka was fought with doubtful issue; but in the September of the same year, Warsaw was stormed by the Russians under General Paskiewitch. Constantine and Diebitsch had both been carried off by cholera, which had raged all that year in both armies and throughout the country. The defeated Polish army had retreated to the Austrian and Prussian territory, and was there disarmed. The most dis-



**A.D.** 1832. **tinguished** of the Poles who had taken part in the revolt emigrated westward, especially to France, England, Switzerland, and the United States of America; and in 1832 the kingdom of Poland was formally declared a part of the Russian empire.

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## CHAP. LXXIV.

### POLITICAL DISSENSIONS IN SWITZERLAND AND GERMANY.

**A.D.** 1831. **DISTURBANCES** had taken place also about this time in Italy, especially in the Roman states, and several of the cities declared themselves independent; but the Austrians advanced into the country, occupied many places, and restored the old order of things without much difficulty. An attempt was made by some Polish refugees to enter Savoy and excite an insurrection there; but they were driven back, and afterwards expelled from Switzerland. In that country a struggle took place between the aristocracy and democracy; in the canton of Basle the country people rose against the authority of the cities, and, under the guidance of the Poles, defeated their opponents, and compelled them to divide the Canton into two independent parts. In most of the Cantons the constitutions were altered, and the confusion that arose was only repressed by threats of inter-

ference from the neighbouring states. The political refugees, who had found an asylum in Switzerland, fomented from thence disturbances in Switzerland and Italy, and created many disputes and collisions with those states. In Germany, too, the July revolution had not passed without leaving traces behind it. The Duke of Brunswick was driven out by his subjects, and his palace set on fire, his brother ascending the ducal throne. In South Germany there were many attempts at insurrection, which afforded the German Diet a pretext for curtailing still more the freedom of the people, already narrowly limited. Prussia and Bavaria organised a *Zollverein*, or general Customs Union, which in a few years was joined by many of the German states. Much was done for industrial progress and the advancement of science, especially by the establishment of various societies. The means of rapid communication were increased by the opening of many new railways; Germany, where they had hitherto been but few, became entirely intersected by them, and there seemed every hope of happier times to come, had not contests, arising out of political and social questions, and the state of society, induced by increasing poverty, clouded the dawn of prosperity with a coming storm, which soon broke out in many European states. First came a struggle in Switzerland between the Liberals and the Roman Catholic party, in which France and Austria would willingly have taken

A.D.  
1830.

A.D.  
1846.

part, but which soon ended in the complete defeat of the Catholics.

Pius IX., a man of enlightened views and of great learning, as well as of mild and affable deportment, ascended the Papal throne in 1846, and was joyfully welcomed throughout Italy, Sardinia, France, and Germany. The Italians hoped he would accomplish their long-cherished wish for the national unity of Italy, and these hopes led to disturbances in various parts of the peninsula. Notwithstanding the popularity he gained by the many reforms he introduced into the government, he was driven from Rome by his subjects, and the state declared a Republic; but a French army subsequently re-installed him in his dominions, and he returned to Rome.

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## CHAP. LXXV.

### FRENCH REVOLUTION OF 1848.

A.D.  
1848.

LOUIS-PHILIPPE governed France for some time with great moderation, but by the gradual introduction of many limitations in the constitution established at the beginning of his reign, he approximated more and more to the policy of the other great powers, who now seemed inclined to overlook the circumstance of his having obtained

his crown through a revolution, whilst on the other hand he separated himself more and more from the interests of the people. A scandalous amount of corruption and dishonesty also was discovered amongst the public officers, and the people, both in speech and writing, demanded a change in the system of government, and especially a reform in the elective franchise. With this view Reform Banquets were arranged to take place all over France, and it was desired that they should be held also in Paris, and that during the sitting of the Chambers. The Government attempted to prevent them, but this only rendered the people clamorous; they assembled tumultuously, and demanded a change of ministry. The excitement terminated in a battle in the streets, as in July, 1830, and when the conflict had gone on for two days (February 22nd and 23rd, 1848), Louis-Philippe consented to dismiss his ministry. The rejoicings were general, and all Paris was illuminated, when, in consequence of an unlucky shot fired near the residence of one of the ministers, the insurrection broke out again with increased violence, and on the morning of the 24th the King was compelled to abdicate in favour of his grandson, the Count of Paris. A.D.  
1848.

This step, however, now no longer satisfied the people, and the Chambers were soon surrounded by armed masses, who compelled them to proclaim a Democratic Republic. The royal family fled from France amidst many dangers, and a Provi-

A.D. 1848. sional Government was formed, at the head of which was placed the poet Lamartine. In June, however, another and still more tremendous insurrection broke out; the National Assembly invested General Cavaignac with Dictatorial power, and he at length succeeded in suppressing the revolt. On the 20th of December, 1848, Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, the nephew of the Emperor Napoleon, was elected President of the French Republic for four years.

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## CHAP. LXXVI.

## DISTURBANCES THROUGHOUT EUROPE.

A.D. 1848. IN France the Revolution was quickly ended, but its emissaries scattered themselves over other countries, and first of all over Germany. A cry arose for Freedom of the Press, Trial by Jury, National Guards, and German Parliaments. In Austria, in its capital Vienna, and under the eye of Prince Metternich, who for many years had guided the helm of the state, an insurrection broke out on the 13th of March, and resulted in the emperor being compelled to dismiss Metternich and give a constitution to his empire. A Constituent Assembly gave it a very democratic character, but the insurrection only increased in violence and extent, until, when the empire

appeared on the eve of dissolution, the feeble and aged Emperor Ferdinand resigned the crown, and his nephew, Francis Joseph, assumed it in his place. A. D.  
1848.

In Milan, the capital of the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, disturbances had occurred; on the 18th of March there had been much street fighting, and on the 23rd Marshal Radetsky and all Austrians were compelled to quit the province. The whole country now threw off the Austrian yoke, and called on King Charles Albert of Sardinia for assistance. Venice declared itself a republic, and in the other Italian States similar demonstrations took place, attended with more or less bloodshed and with variable success. In June, however, Marshal Radetsky again advanced, and on the 24th of July defeated the combined Sardinian and Lombardian forces at Custozza, and again occupied Milan. An armistice followed, and then, in the following spring, Charles Albert renewed hostilities, but was so entirely defeated at Novara that he abdicated, and his son was compelled to accept the conditions of peace offered by the Austrians. Venice too had to submit after a siege of several months' duration.

The Hungarians also had, under the leadership of Kossuth, who was respected by every party in the state, attempted to throw off the dominion of Austria. The Magyars refused to acknowledge the new emperor, and declared Hungary a

A. D. 1848. republic, and Kossuth its President. The conflict between the Austrians and Hungarians was carried on with great bravery and with great animosity, and in addition to the misery brought by the war on the unfortunate country, came the cholera, that desolating Asiatic scourge which had now for twenty years made at various periods its destructive progress through Europe, and even crossed the ocean to America. At first the Austrians were victorious, but subsequently they were nearly driven from the kingdom; the Emperor of Russia, however, sent a great army to their assistance, and the Hungarians were finally defeated.

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## CHAP. LXXVII.

### CONFLICT IN PRUSSIA.

A. D. 1848. IN Prussia discontent with the government had long existed, and on the 18th of March a sanguinary conflict had taken place in the streets of Berlin, which compelled the king, Frederick William, to grant all that was demanded of him. He promised to place himself at the head of the German nation and to become a constitutional monarch; but when the democratic party pushed their demands too far, a reaction took place, and on the 5th of December the constitution was established which is still in force. In the smaller states of Germany similar scenes were enacted;

public demonstrations were made, and Constituent <sup>A.D.</sup>Assemblies held, which sometimes succeeded in <sup>1848.</sup>the objects they had in view, but the governments generally got the management of affairs again into their own hands.

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## CHAP. LXXVIII.

## THE GERMAN PARLIAMENT.

A GENERAL demand now arose for the National <sup>A.D.</sup>Unity of Germany, and to effect this object a <sup>1848.</sup>meeting of Delegates took place at Frankfort, and on the 18th of May, 1848, the German National Assembly met to draw up a Constitution for the whole of Germany. During the sitting of this assembly some revolutionary disturbances took place in Baden, and subsequently in the Rhine provinces, but these were put down by the army of the empire. On the 29th of June the Archduke John was appointed Regent, and in the spring of the following year the King of Prussia was chosen as hereditary emperor, but he declined the title. The Delegates were soon afterwards recalled by their respective governments, and the National Assembly was dissolved. Prussia attempted to form a German union, but without success, and the old German Diet, which had been abolished in 1848, was subsequently restored.



## CHAP. LXXIX.

## THE DUCHIES OF SCHLESWIG HOLSTEIN.

**A. D.** **1848.** GREAT influence had been exercised by the last French revolution on the kingdom of Denmark. Christian VIII., seeing the approaching extinction of the male line of the ruling family, had already made many attempts to enforce the Danish succession on the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein, a measure which was violently opposed in those Duchies. His son Frederick VII., who succeeded to the throne on the death of his father in January 1848, was forced by a bloodless revolution at Copenhagen to change the absolute monarchy into a constitutional one, and the people of Denmark demanded the incorporation of Schleswig. A provisional government was, however, formed in the Duchies, and the whole population rose and acknowledged it. A war followed; Germany sent troops, and then an armistice was concluded, but hostilities began again in the May of 1849. These were, however, followed by another armistice, and in July 1850 by a peace with Germany. The Duchies after this continued the contest alone; but after a heroic struggle they were compelled by the interference of Prussia and Austria finally to submit to Denmark, which in 1852 again assumed the government.

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## CHAP. LXXX.

## GOLD DISCOVERIES.—THE GREAT EXHIBITION.

TAHERE was now for a short period a lull in the storm of political conflict and commotion by which Europe had been shaken to its centre, and events occurred that in some measure called off attention from political topics. The Federative Republic of the United States, little affected by the convulsions taking place in the old world, had been constantly increasing in population and territory, and in one of the most recently acquired regions a surprising discovery had been made. A.D.  
1850.

The peninsula of California, which from the time of the Spanish settlement had been regarded as a dreary, barren, and useless country, and had had no other inhabitants than a few Spanish monks, and a scanty Indian population whom they retained in a half-slavish condition, had after the revolt of the American colonies from the Spaniards fallen to the Mexican government. The Indians had then disappeared, and the nearly uninhabited country had become the resort of hunters and then of a few scattered settlers, mostly persons dissatisfied with the government.

Amongst others came a Swiss officer, an emigrant from Lucerne, who established himself, with about thirty companions, on the river Sacramento, and

A.D. 1850. built a fort, called after him Lutter's Fort, which he fortified with some old cannon bought from the Russians; he induced a number of the Indians to join him, trained them as soldiers, and then entered into a contest with the Mexican government, that ended in the annexation of California to the United States. Scarcely was peace concluded before it was discovered that some of the rivers in the neighbourhood of the San Francisco were teeming with gold. At first the news was received with incredulity; but before the end of the year gold to the value of more than a million sterling had been sent to the United States, and the gold-bearing district was crowded with eager diggers from all parts of the world. There even came 300 Chinese, who built temples and pagodas, and displayed their dragon standards in honour of the American festivals. All was now bustle and activity; buildings and towns sprang up as if by magic—the ports were crowded with ships—trade increased with feverish rapidity; but, unfortunately, the community of gold-seekers, intent only on enriching themselves in the shortest possible time, exhibited a reckless disregard of law, order, and humanity that tended to drive from the place all but the most desperate adventurers.

Within three years from this discovery—namely, in February 1851—Australia, the most important colonial possession of the British Empire, was thrown into commotion from a similar cause. The Bathurst district, in the eastern part of the

great island, was said to be one vast gold-field; and while the whole population was still wild with excitement, similar discoveries were made in rapid succession in Victoria, in Ballarat, and Mount Alexander. In the December of that year two tons of gold a-week were sent to Melbourne by the public conveyance; and even that quantity was known to be far below the amount obtained. Hundreds of thousands of emigrants came hurrying from Europe at the news; neither workmen, nor shepherds, nor servants could be kept to their employments, nor even sailors enough to work the ships; but after a time it was found that digging for gold was an extremely laborious and often less profitable occupation than supplying the wants of an enormously increasing population by the ordinary methods of trade and industry. From the difficulty of providing all at once for the wants of so great a multitude, the prices of all necessities had risen at first to an almost incredible amount. Six shillings a pound was paid in some instances for flour, and £7 for a common pair of shoes. A.D.  
1851.

These gold discoveries occasioning such greatly increased intercourse among different nations, may perhaps have first suggested the idea of the Great Exhibition of the productions of industry and art held in London in the month of May 1851, and to which all the people of the world were invited to contribute. They eagerly accepted the invitation; politics were forgotten,

A.D. 1851. theatres deserted, shops unfrequented, all England seemed to be keeping holiday in Hyde Park, and receiving guests from every corner of the earth. National jealousies and animosities appeared only in the form of a generous rivalry in the beauty and excellence of their respective productions. From morning till night the Exhibition was thronged with visitors, sometimes as many as a hundred thousand in one day, and the number during the whole period when it remained open (till the 15th of October) was calculated at six millions. It was not merely the display of material wealth, and the seemingly boundless resources of human ingenuity, that formed the most striking characteristic of this unexampled assemblage, but the sanguine hopes it awakened that it would mark the commencement of a new era, when civilised nations would settle their disputes by some other method than the rough and bloody arbitrement of war.

Unfortunately, these hopes proved entirely fallacious. A more stormy period was approaching than had been known in Europe since the fall of the first Napoleon.

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## CHAP. LXXXI.

## LOUIS NAPOLEON'S PRESIDENCY.

THREE out of the four years of Louis Napoleon's presidency had passed in tolerable quiet. A.D.  
1851 An attempt at another insurrection had indeed been made in 1849, but it was put down with a strong hand by General Changarnier; and in the meantime the party of Louis Napoleon had been evidently increasing in strength. The army, the clergy, the working classes had been successively flattered, and, in a great measure, gained over; and the body of the nation, wearied and exhausted with civil conflict, and shuddering at the possible renewal of bloodshed, were ready to acquiesce in any form of government that could preserve even the semblance of peace and order. Louis Napoleon, in the meantime, had been silently maturing his plans, and when the moment for which he had been watching had arrived, he suddenly struck the blow he had been meditating.

Early in the morning of the 2nd of December, 1851, a strongly armed body of police seized, not without resistance, the Generals Changarnier, Cavaignac, and Lamoricière, the late minister, M. Thiers, a great number of the members of the Legislative body, and others of more or less note; and when the people of Paris awoke they were informed that the National Assembly was dissolved,

A.D. 1851. universal suffrage re-established, and eleven of the Departments into which France is divided placed in a state of siege. In vain did parties of the members attempt to re-assemble, they were dispersed or arrested by hundreds, and an attempt at re-erection of barricades in the streets immediately struck down; the prisons were all filled, numbers of executions took place on the Champ de Mars, hundreds were transported to Cayenne and Algiers; and the soldiers who had served as the instruments of these proceedings were richly rewarded. This measure is generally known as the "Coup d'Etat of December 2nd."

In another year, namely, on the 2nd of December, 1852, Louis Napoleon was proclaimed emperor by the title of Napoleon III., and was declared to have been duly elected by the votes of eight millions of the people. He professed his intention of governing in the most peaceable manner that should be possible, consistently with the honour of France, and that in fact his rule should be emphatically that of peace; "*L'Empire c'est la Paix*" was to be the watchword. At first the great powers of Europe hesitated to acknowledge him; but at length they did so, the King of Naples and the English government first, and the Emperor of Russia the last.

As we are here giving a narrative of historical facts, and not discussing political questions, we will not enter into the various reasons that rendered the sincerity of the new emperor's professions extremely doubtful.

## CHAP. LXXXII.

## THE RUSSIAN WAR.

IN the year 1853 it became evident that the long <sup>A.D.</sup> peace which had prevailed among the nations of <sup>1853.</sup> Europe, with scarcely any interruption since 1815, was likely to be broken, and, as it so often happens, it was apparently a mere spark that served to set the civilised world in a blaze. A dispute had been going on for a long time in Jerusalem between the monks of the Greek and Roman Catholic churches as to which of them had the best right to the guardianship of certain relics and shrines called the "Holy Places;" and when the Catholics managed to get possession of the key of the Church of Bethlehem, the dispute was taken up by the Russian and French governments. The Russians maintained that they of the Greek Church had the best right to the key, as they had themselves built the existing edifice, after a fire that had taken place in 1808; and the matter was referred to the Sultan, who issued a firman or decree that might have partially reconciled the disputants if it had been obeyed. It was not obeyed, however, and then the Emperor of Russia endeavoured to enforce his arguments by sending a large body of troops to occupy the frontier near the principality of Moldavia, which is sepa-



A.D. 1853. rated from the Russian territory only by the river Pruth. After a great deal of negotiation, which did not lead to any satisfactory result, the Russians, in the beginning of July, 1853, crossed the river and entered Moldavia; a step which was declared to be an invasion of Turkish territory, and protested against accordingly by the Sultan. As, however, these Danubian principalities, though nominally belonging to Turkey, had been since 1829 placed, on account of their Christian population, under what was called "the protection of Russia," there was room at least for an assertion on the part of the Emperor of Russia that he had entered Moldavia merely in behalf of the Greek Church, of which he was the head. But France and England now entered into the quarrel; English politicians feared the increase of the power of Russia that might result from its obtaining a decisive victory over the Turks; and the French emperor was probably but too glad of the prospect of a foreign war, that would turn the attention of his subjects away from his government at home, afford occupation to the restless and discontented, amuse them with the prospects of military glory, and induce the soberer part of the community to accept the advantages of an alliance with England, which he now effected, as a compensation for the means by which he had attained to power.

England and France therefore agreed to support the Sultan, and on the 14th of October their

combined fleets entered the Sea of Marmora. A.D.  
1853.  
The conflict began soon afterwards in the north of Turkey between the Turks and Russians; the former were at first successful, and thereupon the Emperor of Russia, who had at first declared his intention of merely acting on the defensive, and preventing the Turks from entering the principalities, sent a fleet to attack and destroy that of the Turks in the harbour of Sinope, on the southern shore of the Black Sea. The attack was so sudden and unexpected that 4000 of the Turks were killed. Great indignation was excited in Europe by this action; the French and English fleets immediately received orders to advance into the Black Sea, and in the April and May following English and French armies were landed on the shores of the Bosphorus.

In the campaign that followed in the countries on the north-western shore of the Black Sea, the armies suffered much from fever and cholera, being frequently encamped in most pestilential places; it was therefore resolved, in the hope of bringing the war to a more speedy conclusion, to attack the very strongest place in the whole Russian empire, the great fortress of Sebastopol, in the Crimea. On the 1st of September an immense armada of English, French, and Turkish vessels anchored, after a stormy and dangerous voyage, in the bay of Eupatoria, and landed forty thousand men before dark.

The Crimea is a peninsula, about twice the

**A.D.** size of Wales, stretching southward from Russia  
**1853.** into the Black Sea, and connected with the continent by a neck of land twenty miles long; its climate is excessively variable, changing from hot to cold sometimes as often as eight times in twenty-four hours. The nights were found to be mostly very cold, with a heavy dew, and the men had to lie on the bare ground, for by some strange mismanagement the tents and many of the most needful articles had been left on board the ships, or were lying rotting on the beach. Under these circumstances disease soon broke out again among them, and, in the words of the English commander-in-chief, they were "pursued by cholera to the very battle-field." They seemed nevertheless, when the moment for action came, to forget and defy all suffering, and in a battle fought near the river Alma on the 20th of September they gained a splendid victory. On the 23rd the combined armies began their march to Sebastopol, and in three days reached the entrance to the valley of Balaklava, seven miles from the great fortress, a portion of the fleet having come round to the harbour with the siege train and provisions. The little town immediately surrendered. Those who saw it first describe it as a pretty and comfortable place, "with gardens and flowering shrubs, and flower-pots in the windows;" but all its beauty and comfort soon disappeared under the rough and cruel hand of war.

The siege of Sebastopol began on the 17th of

October, but no advantage could be obtained at first, though the most magnificent feats of daring were performed. On the 5th of November an unexpected attack was made by the Russians in great force at Inkerman ; the battle again terminated in a brilliant victory of the allies ; but this was confessedly owing more to the unconquerable bravery of the troops than to the skill of their commanders, who had allowed themselves to be surprised. For this reason the battle of Inkerman was called " the Soldiers' Battle."

A.D.  
1853.

There were many other deplorable mistakes in the management of affairs, which threatened for a long time to neutralise every advantage gained by the sacrifice of so many brave men.

As no road had been made to connect the shipping with the camp, no carts or other conveyances were to be obtained, and the country was almost impassable, the food and clothing brought for the men were as much out of their reach as if, it was said, they had been on the banks of the Thames. The soldiers were half starved, in rags, and perishing from cold ; yet food, clothes, and fuel had been sent to them from England, and were lying spoiling but eight miles off. In addition to this came, ten days after the battle of Inkerman, an unavoidable misfortune, a tremendous hurricane, by which ships, men, stores, and treasures were swept to speedy destruction. Thirty transport ships were totally wrecked. A magnificent new steam-ship (the " Prince "),

**A.D.** with a cargo of ammunition and stores worth  
**1853.** 500,000*l.*, was dashed to pieces in ten minutes; and another, the "Resolute," went down with 900 tons of gunpowder. More than a thousand men were lost with the ships, besides many hundreds, who, after the wrecks, were taken prisoners by the Russians, and the loss in property was estimated at a million.

By the beginning of the following year a dismal story, that at first people refused to believe, reached England. An army that never met the enemy but to conquer, was wasting and perishing to no purpose from disease, and cold, and hunger.

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## CHAP. LXXXIII.

### RUSSIAN WAR—SUFFERINGS OF THE SOLDIERS.

**A.D.** **THE** public rejoicings for the victories gained,  
**1854.** were, in the Christmas of 1854, clouded over and quenched in the tears of those who had fathers, husbands, and sons lying in the terrible trenches before Sebastopol in the rigours of a Russian winter, or returning after standing through the night in the half-frozen mud, cold and famishing, to a fragment of a tent, and a scanty portion of raw food which they had no fire to cook.

Although it was known that the most enormous waste of the public money and stores had taken place, and that Turkish merchants had

even boasted of how well they could dupe the English, a private subscription was raised in England to supply comforts to the suffering soldiers. It soon amounted to nearly a million; special persons were appointed to administer it, and a numerous band of English ladies went out to the Crimea to act as nurses to their sick and wounded countrymen.

A.D.  
1854.

On the 2nd of March, 1855, the Emperor Nicholas of Russia expired after only a few days' illness, aggravated by the anxieties of the war; but, though it was believed that his successor was desirous of terminating the contest, it continued with great fury, till at last, after a siege of eleven months, occasioning incalculable suffering on both sides, the great stronghold of Sebastopol, or all that remained of it, fell on the 8th of September into the hands of the allies. "The batteries and bastions," said an eye-witness, "were all blown up, the town was a sea of flame; it was a horror of desolation as dreadful as hell." What was seen when the victors entered the hospitals is too dreadful and sickening to repeat. The young Emperor Alexander made proposals of peace, as soon as a little success in Asia Minor enabled him to do so with some appearance of honour. Some persons in England were unwilling that it should be accepted, from a desire that future victories might efface the recollection of the calamities and disasters that had marked the commencement of the war; but better

**A.D.** councils prevailed, and peace was proclaimed in  
**1856** April 1856.

Before the end of the year, however, came news of an attack by the Shah of Persia on Herat, and war was declared against Persia, and British troops sent to the Persian Gulf. Nearly at the same time the Chinese at Canton attempted to destroy some British ships, and committed other acts of hostility, and English troops and ships of war were sent to attack Canton; and while this war was still going on, other tidings arrived so much more terrible and calamitous, as to cause the war in China to be nearly forgotten.

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## CHAP. LXXXIV.

### THE INDIAN MUTINY.

THE year 1857 will long be remembered as that of the disastrous mutiny in India. For a hundred years this empire had been governed chiefly by the aid of native troops, called Sepoys, who were armed and paid by the East India Company; and amongst these men sagacious observers had for a long time noticed symptoms of discontent, encouraged probably by men of higher rank, who dreaded the increase of the English power, or feared interference with their own violent and oppressive proceedings.

This discontent was increased, too, by the addition of a large territory called the Kingdom

of Oude to the English dominions; and when these ill feelings had long been smouldering in secret, when a part of the small English army in India had been sent away to assist in the war against China, a trivial circumstance occasioned the outbreak. A new kind of rifle had been introduced into India, for which it was necessary to use greased cartridges, and the Sepoys expressed great uneasiness at the idea that for the greasing the fat of cows and pigs had been used; for as the Hindoos among them worship the cow, and the Mahometans abhor the pig, this was considered a great offence. The biting of these cartridges, which the men would have to do in loading their rifles, would, it was said, make the Hindoos lose caste and be disowned by their people, and a report was even spread that the Government had done it on purpose to force them to become Christians.

A.D.  
1857.

When the murmurs on this subject became known to the Government, they ordered (January 27th, 1857) a chemical examiner to analyse the greased papers, and he declared that no such substances as the fat of cows and pigs had been used in their preparation; the men also received permission to purchase the ingredients for themselves; but they still persisted in declaring that they were to be made Christians by force, and the symptoms of mutiny became so serious that it was found necessary to disarm and disband one regiment after another, and send some of the most criminal of the ringleaders to execution.



A.D. 1857. At length, on a Sunday evening, the 10th of May, when most of the English were at church, the insurrection burst forth at Meerut in all its horrors. Two Sepoy regiments quartered there rose against their officers, shot them, set fire to their cantonments, and then opening the gaol, joined with a thousand convicts, whom they had let loose, in the commission of every kind of frightful atrocity. Every European, including ladies and children, were murdered in the most barbarous manner.

From this time the accounts from India present a continual repetition of similar horrors. At Delhi the English residents fled for protection to the palace, but were butchered in the presence of the king and his sons. In many instances it was promised they should be spared if they laid down their weapons, but when they did so they were instantly massacred.

The number of English troops in India at the breaking out of the mutiny was so small, that it was not till July that any very successful attempt could be made to repress it. On the 11th of that month a signal victory was obtained over the rebellious Sepoys, though its immediate effect was only to increase the ferocity of those who had Europeans in their power. One miscreant, named Nana Sahib, was especially infamous for the cruelties he perpetrated at a place called Cawnpore.

On the 21st of September the city of Delhi,

which is seven miles round, was taken after a week's siege; but even at the end of the year 1857, no certainty was felt that the mutiny would ever be completely quelled; and it was not till the March of the following year, when the magnificent city of Lucknow was captured, that the Indian Empire was saved to its English rulers. By this victory a joyful deliverance was afforded to a considerable party of English, who had been shut up in a portion of the city which they had fortified as well as they could, and heroically defended for many months. A.D.  
1859.

In August, 1858, an Act was passed in England to take the supreme authority from the East India Company and transfer it to the Queen's government, and the change was proclaimed in India three months afterwards.

Amidst all the sufferings occasioned by this terrible mutiny, the English people derived consolation from the pride they could not but feel in the endurance, energy, and heroic courage displayed in numberless instances, not only by armies in the field, but by hundreds of Englishmen and Englishwomen scattered about the vast regions of India in small isolated groups, and surrounded by multitudes of ferocious enemies. Never have the best qualities of the national character shone out more brightly than in those dark and stormy days.

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## CHAP. LXXXV.

## THE ITALIAN WAR.

A.D.  
1859. THE close of the year 1858 left Europe in general in a tolerably satisfactory and prosperous state; but there were, nevertheless, circumstances that occasioned doubts and fears for the future.

Warlike preparations were known to be going on with the greatest activity in all the French ports and arsenals. Cavalry horses, ammunition, and stores were being purchased in immense quantities, even the fleet was being put into a state of thorough efficiency; but French official persons asserted that these preparations were made with a view to Algeria or China, or merely to make up the losses occasioned by the Crimean war. At length it became known that an alliance had been concluded between France and Sardinia, for the defence of Piedmont in case of an invasion by Austria; and on the New Year's Day of 1859, the Emperor of the French publicly expressed his "regret," that, notwithstanding his regard for the young Emperor of Austria, the relations of his government with the Austrian were "not so good as they had been." These words were repeated all over Europe, and a war was generally expected; the Austrians sent fresh troops into Italy, and Sardinia also made extensive military preparations. But during three months the

ministers of England, Russia, and Prussia were busy in endeavouring to effect some settlement that should avert the calamity of another European war. It was proposed that a congress should be assembled; but Austria demanded that Sardinia should be excluded from it, unless she consented previously to disarm, and, on the 19th of April, sent a last summons or *ultimatum* to King Victor Emmanuel, requiring him, under penalty of a declaration of war, to disband the Italian volunteers, and lay aside other armaments within three days. A.D.  
1859.

This demand was rejected, and the Austrians prepared to invade Sardinia. Thousands of French soldiers immediately crossed the Alps, other divisions of the army embarked for Genoa, and the Emperor Napoleon III. himself arrived in that city early in May, and proceeded to take the command of his army, after having conferred on the empress the title of Regent during his absence.

At this time hostilities had actually commenced, for the Austrians had crossed the Ticino on the 29th of April, and entered the Sardinian territory; but rain had fallen in such torrents that the country had been converted into a morass, and the roads had become quite impassable for artillery, so that a fortnight passed without any important movement.

The first serious engagement took place at Montebello on the 20th of May, when the Austrians, after a brave resistance and much loss,

A.D.  
1859.

were driven from their position. Three days afterwards General Garibaldi, at the head of a body of Italian volunteers, whom he had trained and organised, crossed the river Ticino into the Austrian territory, and obtained some signal successes. Great enthusiasm was excited all over Italy by the hope that it might now be possible for the various small states to be united into one strong Italian nation; and in the duchies of Tuscany and Parma revolutionary movements took place, though without bloodshed; their rulers were allowed to depart quietly, and the people demanded to be annexed to Sardinia.

The allied French and Sardinian armies now prepared for a great and decisive battle, which took place on the 4th of June at Magenta, a town on the high road to Milan from the eastern bank of the Ticino.

After two of the Austrian columns had been routed by General M'Mahon, the Imperial Guards and Zouaves, under the Emperor in person, advanced by the bridge of Buffalora against the main body of the Austrian army, and with the help of General M'Mahon entirely defeated them, and obliged them to retreat from Lombardy. In a few days the Austrians had abandoned or were driven from all their strongest positions, and the inhabitants of Milan rose against them and expelled the garrison. Four days after the battle of Magenta, Napoleon III. and King Victor Emmanuel of Sardinia entered Milan in triumph.

The allied armies now followed the Austrians <sup>A.D. 1859.</sup> in their retreat, the French on their right, the Sardinians on their left, and Garibaldi and his volunteers operating against them to the north, and closing up some important roads and mountain passes. The Emperor of Austria now assumed the command of his army, making his headquarters at Villafranca, in advance of Verona, and on the night of the 23rd the Austrian army recrossed the river Mincio, and reoccupied some of the positions which they had abandoned, extending their front along a line of twelve miles. A tremendous battle followed, which is known as the battle of Solferino, from the village and heights of that name forming the principal object of contention. More than three hundred thousand men were engaged in this fearful conflict, which raged from five o'clock in the morning till eight at night, and cost the lives of more than twenty-four thousand men. At last the Austrians retreated from the hardly contested field. The allies made a further advance across the Mincio, and preparations were made for the siege of Verona, when, to the surprise of all Europe, an armistice was announced; and this was speedily followed, after a personal interview between the two emperors, by a peace, signed at Villafranca on the 11th of July. In this treaty Lombardy was resigned to the Emperor of the French, who agreed immediately to transfer it to the King of Sardinia. The war had scarcely lasted two

**A.D.** months; but the satisfaction that would have  
**1859.** been felt at the restoration of peace was checked by doubt and distrust of the motives of the Emperor of the French in making it. It could hardly be believed that the man who had established a despotic government in his own country would incur the perils and sacrifices of war for the sake of restoring liberty to Italy; and no one could understand why, after making an unprovoked attack on Austria, he should suddenly have checked his career when he might have pursued it with every prospect of further advantage.

It remains for future events to show how far this distrust was well founded.

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This little historical sketch has now been brought down almost to the present moment, and must here be concluded. All general histories must break off abruptly, for as the stream of human affairs flows on without ceasing, every new event gives rise to others, and so on in endless succession.

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## QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION

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### CHAP. I.

1. WHAT is the province of History ?
2. Can the historian record every fact ?
3. Show what is the principle of his selection.
4. How does he decide what is "important ? "

### CHAP. II.

1. What is known of the Creation of the world ?
2. What is the earliest of all histories ?
3. Give from Genesis the work of the six days respectively.
4. What purpose do the rocks appear to have served ?
5. Is the earth even now in a state of change ? In what respects ?
6. When and where was one of the most memorable earthquakes ?

### CHAP. III.

1. How was the earth peopled ?
2. Have you any reason for saying that man is above all other creatures ?
3. Collect from the first three chapters of Genesis all that is said of man and his privileges.

### CHAP. IV.

1. Were the first men obliged to labour for their subsistence ?
2. What was the first kind of clothing ?
3. Was agriculture or the chase man's first resource ?
4. What are Nomades, and their mode of life ?



## CHAP. V.

1. In a rude state, man's talents are of course dormant, and many of his powers undeveloped. What was his first step in improvement?
2. Is the hunter's life most favourable for improvement?
3. What changes would agriculture introduce in living?
4. What was the state of ancient agriculture?

## CHAP. VI.

1. What was the ancient mode of preparing corn for food? How did it differ from our bread?
2. Are mills mentioned in the Books of Moses? Where else in the Bible?
3. When were windmills introduced?
4. How did the Greeks, Romans, and Israelites respectively prepare their flour?
5. Which was first known, wine or beer?
6. Are there many nations whose only beverage is water?

## CHAP. VII.

1. Are there any barbarous tribes unacquainted with fire?
  2. How would fire be probably first discovered?
  3. How would fire introduce Metallurgy?
  4. Was iron the most common metal anciently?
  5. What countries first excelled in stone buildings?
  6. How old, at least, are the Pyramids?
- [Here read some account of the Pyramids and the history of the Israelites in Egypt. "Heeren's Ancient Nations" affords useful information.]

## CHAP. VIII.

1. What conjectures have been formed concerning the formation of language?
  2. What is the most ancient language now known?
  3. Does not language greatly change in time?
- [Read and compare pages of Chaucer and of Pope; of Hooker and of Hume, or of any modern history.]
4. What causes changes in a language?

## CHAP. IX.

1. Can men live in society without government?
2. What was the earliest form of it?
3. How was the choice of a governor at first determined?

4. Were governments originally hereditary?
5. What people had the first known code of laws?
6. Discriminate between an absolute monarchy, an aristocracy, a democracy, and a constitutional monarchy.

#### CHAP. X.

1. How far back can the historian find any satisfactory information?
2. What country has the earliest remains of art?
3. For what are Egypt and the Nile remarkable? What is the Delta?  
[Inquire into the cause of the overflowing of the Nile.]
4. What was the earliest writing material? Whence "Paper?"
5. In what does Egypt abound, and in what is it deficient?
6. Distinguish "Obelisk" from "Pyramid."
7. What are mummies, how prepared, where found, of what date?

#### CHAP. XI.

1. Explain the division of "Castes."
2. Who were the physicians, and what was their system of practice?
3. At what intervals did the Nile overflow?
4. How much must be added to make this period coincide with the solar year?
5. How did Julius Cæsar alter the calendar, and how was it still imperfect?
6. How did Pope Gregory XIII. alter the calendar?
7. Have the Russians yet adopted his plan?
8. What animals did the Egyptians worship?  
[Pritchard's "Ancient Egyptians" may be read with advantage.]
9. When did the Egyptians first allow intercourse to foreigners?
10. What do you know of Psammeticus?  
[Attend to the incidental remarks on the Egyptians in the "Pentateuch."

#### CHAP. XII.

1. Relate the history of Abraham. What idolatry was common in his days?

2. Explain how the Israelites came into Egypt, and mention the date of the event.
3. What is said of Goshen?
4. Did Moses lead the Israelites into Canaan?
5. Who was Joshua? What is recorded of the tribe of Levi?
6. How long were the Israelites in Egypt? How many were there at their departure?

## CHAP. XIII.

1. Was Canaan uninhabited, or did the people yield at once to the invaders?
2. About what time did these things occur?
3. Who chiefly disputed the possession of Canaan with the Israelites? Name the cause of their defeats, the protectors and governors raised to deliver them.
4. How long did they live without a king?
5. What striking description of a Tyranny is given in 1 Sam. viii.
6. How did Saul displease Samuel, and act wickedly?
7. Whom did Samuel anoint in his stead?
8. What was the end of Saul?
9. What were the brightest days of the kingdom? What was its extent in David's time? What was the attempt and what the end of Absalom?
10. Who was Solomon?—what his date, treasures, commerce? What caused discontent and a revolt?
11. How was Palestine divided at his death?
12. How did this division prosper?
13. What was the captivity of Judah?—when and how did it take place?
14. How much earlier, and by whom, did Israel fall?
15. What became of the Temple? When did Judah return and rebuild it? When was it again destroyed, and by whom? Name our Lord's prophecies of its destruction.

## CHAP. XIV.

1. What probably first gave the idea of boats, and of what kind were the first vessels?
2. What nation first ventured out of sight of land.
3. When was the compass discovered in Europe?
4. What nations now build the finest ships?

CHAP. XV.

1. Is navigation connected with commerce ?
2. What was the earliest form of commerce ?
3. Explain the use of money as a common measure.
4. What weighing machines are of the earliest invention.
5. Were metals the only kind of money ?
6. Of what metals were the coins at different times ?
7. Were precious metals always stamped for commerce ?
8. To what geographical discoveries did love for commerce lead ?
9. Is not commerce a temptation as well as a blessing ?
10. What is said of the slave trade ?
11. What political influence does commerce exercise ?

CHAP. XVI.

1. Which was the most ancient commercial nation ?
2. By what time must the harbour of Sidon have been formed ?
3. Trace the route of Phœnician merchants.
4. What colonies did they found ?
5. Where was the ancient Tarshish ?
6. Did the Phœnicians ever come to England ? and what did they find ?
7. Where did they trade besides on the sea ?
8. What did they get from Arabia ? and what did they manufacture and export ?
9. How were Tyre and Sidon destroyed in B.C. 600 ?
10. Relate a subsequent capture in B.C. 333.

CHAP. XVII.

1. What was the date of the foundation of the Assyrian empire ? its division and conquest ?
2. Who was the founder of the Persian empire ? its date ?
3. Of the Macedonian empire and its dissolution ?
4. The date of the building of Rome ? how long before the Empire was divided into the Eastern and Western Empires ?
5. When was the Western overthrown ?
6. When were the Empire of Charlemagne and the Arabian Empire respectively founded ?
7. What was the end of the Frank Empire ?
8. Who put an end to the Arabian ?
9. What was the date of the rise of the Empire of Charles V ? and of its dissolution ?

10. Besides Louis XIV. what other French Sovereign destroyed the balance of power in Europe? What were their dates?

#### CHAP. XVIII.

1. Who built Nineveh, and founded the kingdom of Assyria?
2. Name the famous Queen of Nineveh.
3. How far did the kingdom extend? For what wonder was Babylon famous?
4. Into what kingdoms was this Empire dissolved?

#### CHAP. XIX.

1. What prediction alarmed Astyages, King of Media?
2. How did he try to falsify it?
3. Relate the story of Cyrus, and how he united the empires of the Medes and the Persians.
4. Whence the proverb "As rich as Croesus?"
5. Who was Solon? His date? His advice to Croesus?
6. What mighty empire or city did Cyrus conquer?
7. To what boundaries did Cambyses extend the empire?
8. Who succeeded Cambyses?
9. How far did the Persian Empire extend under Darius?

#### CHAP. XX.

1. What is the historical information conveyed, even by the fabulous tales of Persia and Arabia?
2. Who was Harpagus, and what his connection with Astyages?
3. Where is this revolting tale told?

#### CHAP. XXI.

1. Whence came the first inhabitants of Greece?
2. About what time?
3. What expedition did they undertake in common?
4. How were disputes among the Greeks at first settled?

#### CHAP. XXII.

1. What was the origin of the animosity of the Persians against the Greeks?
2. What was the fate of the first Persian armament?
3. Which of the Grecian states made the most determined stand against the Persians?

4. Who was Miltiades? [Here read of Miltiades, Themistocles, Pericles, in Plutarch's Lives; if not in Classical Dictionary.]

5. When were the Battles of Marathon, Salamis, and Thermopylæ? [Classical Dictionary or Grecian History.]

6. Who was Leonidas? describe the tactics of Themistocles.

7. After Salamis, did the Persians ever make another attempt on the liberties of Greece?

### CHAP. XXIII.

1. Which were the two principal races of Greece?

2. What was the Spartan character?

3. Who was Lycurgus?

4. What do you know of the laws and customs of the Spartans?

5. What was the Athenian character? Name some of their chief orators, painters, and sculptors.

### CHAP. XXIV.

1. What influence did this victory over the Persians give the Athenians, and how did they use it?

2. Describe the cause, as well as the occasion and pretext, of the Peloponnesian War.

3. What was the time and origin of the plague of Athens?

4. How long did the war last?

5. Who was Alcibiades, and what parties did he severally join?

6. What was the termination of the war?

7. To what might the Athenians attribute their loss?

### CHAP. XXV.

1. Who was Socrates? and who Plato?

2. What was the nature of the teaching of Socrates? Who were his most distinguished pupils?

3. What accusation was laid against him?

4. What was his fate, and at what date?

[Read English translation of the death of Socrates, in Plato's Phædon, also Plato's Eutyphron, or why Socrates would not escape from prison. Read also translation of Xenophon's Memoirs of Socrates.]

CHAP. XXVI.

1. Who was Philip of Macedon, and who Alexander the Great?
2. What was the consequence of the dissensions among the Grecian States?
3. Describe the campaigns of Alexander.
4. Who was Darius?
5. Who fought the battle of the Issus?
6. What maritime city did Alexander destroy? and what did he found?
7. How far eastward did he march?
8. When did he retreat?
9. Where did he die?
10. Into what monarchies was his Empire split?
11. Of what empire did they next form a part?

CHAP. XXVII.

1. Where is Rome? When was it founded? What can you mention of the general character of the Romans?
  2. What was their chief employment in peace?
  3. Describe their dress, meals, buildings.
  4. What were, according to tradition, the names of their kings? Who was Tarquin?
  5. Who was Horatius Cocles?
  6. Who Mucius Scævola?
  7. What became of Tarquin?
  8. Were kings again allowed?
- [Here read, the history by the Christian Knowledge Society.]

CHAP. XXVIII.

1. Who was Pyrrhus? Where was Epirus, and how far from Tarentum?
2. Who led the Romans against Pyrrhus, and what was their attempt to bribe him?
3. When was first said, "Another such a victory, and we are undone?"
4. When do you first hear of elephants in battle?
5. What improvement in the art of war was now made?

CHAP. XXIX.

1. Where was Carthage, and by whom founded?
2. What happened in Sicily to embroil the Romans with the Carthaginians?

3. What was the date, the cause, and result of the first Punic war?
4. When did the Romans first carry their arms across the sea?
5. Where did they build their first fleet, and from what model?
6. Who first led them into Africa, and what was his fate?
7. What was the cause of the second and third Punic wars, respectively?
8. Relate the story of the disinterested virtue of Regulus.
9. Had the Romans any losses?
10. On what terms did the Carthaginians afterwards have peace?
11. Did they renew the war, and why?
12. What was the cause of the third Punic war?
13. Who was Hannibal?
- [Read of Hannibal in Plutarch.]
14. What wondrous march did he achieve?
15. What loss did he sustain?
16. Who encountered him in Italy, and with what tactics?
17. Into what great danger did the Romans fall by the battle of Cannæ?

#### CHAP. XXX.

1. What alliance did Hannibal form?
2. What great mathematician assisted him at Syracuse?
3. What conquests did Scipio achieve?
4. What was the battle of Zama, and its consequences?
5. To whom did Hannibal have recourse?
6. What was the result to Antiochus, and who was Hannibal's next protector?
7. How and when did he die?
8. What further pretext did Rome find against the Carthaginians?
9. Relate their desperate resistance: its date?
10. What other famous city did the Romans destroy the same year?

#### CHAP. XXXI.

1. What caused civil dissensions in Rome?
2. Into what four countries had the Romans extended their conquests?
3. What occasioned the first civil war?
4. How many men lost themselves in it?
5. Who were the most distinguished Romans of B.C. 60?



6. Who was Julius Cæsar? To what office was he first appointed?
7. On what policy did Pompey and Crassus decide?
8. Where were Cæsar, Pompey, and Crassus now severally employed?
9. What was the battle of Pharsalia?
10. What demand did Cæsar make which his colleagues resisted?
11. What was the cause of the conspiracy against him, and who were its leaders?
12. What was the date of his assassination?

## CHAP. XXXII.

1. What became of Brutus?
2. How did Octavius and Antony now divide the empire?
3. What connection served to foment the quarrel between Octavius and Antony.
4. Who was Cleopatra?
5. Who were the parties in the battle of Actium? Where is Actium?
6. What name did Octavius assume? Whence the regal term Cæsar?
7. By whom was Augustus succeeded?
8. In whose reign was our Saviour born? in whose crucified?
9. What was henceforth the form of government in Rome?
10. What was the fate of the empire? at what date?

## CHAP. XXXIII.

1. What was the general aspect of ancient Germany?
2. What were the principal possessions of the ancient Germans?
3. Do you know anything more of their character and habits?
4. What kind of government had they?
5. In what instances did they prove formidable to the Romans?
6. What were their ideas of a future state?

## CHAP. XXXIV.

1. In what year of Rome and of the world was our Saviour born?
2. What was the state of religion in which the Jews were found?

3. Who were the Pharisees, the Publicans, and the Sadducees ?

4. Under whose government was Judæa at that time ?

5. Describe the gradual spread of the faith.

6. What was the doom of Jerusalem ?

[Read "Milman," first 50 pages of Vol. III.; or see "Jerusalem" in a Cyclopædia.]

7. When was Christianity first made the religion of the empire ?

8. What great dispute now arose in Christendom ?

9. Whence the origin of the monastic system ?

#### CHAP. XXXV.

1. Name the countries comprised in the Roman empire.

2. What enemies attacked it ?

3. What great division was made in the year A.D. 395.

4. Whence came the Huns, the Alares, the Goths ?

5. How many times was Rome plundered ?

6. How did this cause the extremities of the empire to be exposed ?

7. Whence came the Franks, Burgundians, Suevi, and Vandals ?

8. What kingdom did the Goths found ?

9. What nation now invaded Carthage ?

10. What nation was about this time invited into Britain ?

11. Who was Attila, and what kingdom did he attack ?

12. Who was the last of the Roman emperors ? What was his date ?

13. What became of the Eastern empire ?

#### CHAP. XXXVI.

1. Who was Belisarius ? and on what campaign did he enter ?

2. What was his success ?

3. Explain how Italy became a province of the Eastern empire.

4. Who were the Lombards, and what their victories ?

5. When did silk weavers first come into Europe ?

6. How was silk before procured ?

7. How did Justinian favour the manufacture ?

8. Trace its progress in Europe.

#### CHAP. XXXVII.

1. When does Robertson suppose the greatest enormities were perpetrated among the human race ?

2. In what did the fate of the Romans resemble that of the American Indians?
3. Describe the devastation by the Vandals in Spain.
4. By what eye-witness is it recorded?
5. Who describes their fury in Africa?
6. Illustrate the complete devastation by the Huns.
7. Who was Procopius, and to what does he bear witness?
8. Who were the Goths?
9. What act of devastation did they commit in 280?
10. Who were the Ostrogoths and Visigoths?
11. Who destroyed the temple of Ephesus?
12. Describe that temple and its dimensions.  
[Collect all that is said of it in the Acts of the Apostles.]
13. Who was Alaric?
14. What Roman emperor kept them at bay? By whom were they defeated?
15. What is the Great Wall of China?
16. Against what enemy of Rome was it built?
17. Did the Chinese ever defend themselves against the Huns?
18. Under what king were the Huns united?
19. How did Theodosius suffer from them?
20. What other countries did Attila invade?
21. What was his end?
22. What was the end of the empire of Attila, and the Huns?

## CHAP. XXXVIII.

1. What kind of country is Arabia?
2. What sort of life do most of its inhabitants lead?
3. What remarkable man was born among them in the 6th century A.D.?
4. Can you mention any particulars of his life?
5. From what event do the Mahometans reckon their time?
6. Where are the doctrines of Mahomet recorded?
7. Can you mention any of his leading tenets?
8. How and when did Mahomet die?

## CHAP. XXXIX.

1. Who was Omar?
2. Trace Omar and his successors in their various conquests.
3. Who were the Ommiades and the Abassidæ?
4. What tales describe Arabian manners in the eighth century?

5. In what sciences did the Arabians excel?
6. Who founded Morocco?
7. Who were the Moors?
8. What were the Saracen capitals in the East and West respectively?
9. Did the Saracens ever attack Rome?
10. What fate, attendant on all large empires, befel that of the Saracens?
11. Explain how both Turks and Saracens awaited the Crusaders in Palestine.
12. How long did the Moors hold Spain?
13. What was the kingdom of Granada?
14. What means were used, and for what motive, to convert the Moors to Christianity?
15. Relate the cruel expulsion of the Moors and its consequences.

#### CHAP. XL.

1. Name the inhabitants of Germany in A.D. 500.
2. Who converted the Germans?
3. What request was made of the Franks of Germany for assistance?
4. How did the Pope at this time increase his dominions?

#### CHAP. XLI.

1. When did Pepin die, and by whom was he succeeded?
2. With what enemy did Charlemagne first contend?
3. To what savage proceeding was Charlemagne at last excited?
4. How did he come into communication with the Pope?
5. What was his character?
6. What learned contemporary did he invite from England?
7. Whom did he appoint as his successor, and when did he die?
8. When do we first hear of clocks?

#### CHAP. XLII.

1. What were the earliest modes of measuring time?
2. How did the Babylonians divide the day?
3. Of what water clocks do we hear?
4. Who discovered the pendulum, and who introduced it into clock-making?
5. Who invented pocket watches?

## CHAP. XLIII.

1. What was the state of Germany at the death of Charlemagne?
2. Who succeeded Conrad?
3. What were the achievements of Henry of Saxony?
4. Who was Otto, and what was the character of his reign?

## CHAP. XLIV.

1. Who were the Popes, and what their pretensions?
2. When was Papal power at its highest point?
3. What was the administration and what were the institutions of Hildebrand?
4. What prince alone resisted him?
5. What happened between Henry IV. and the Saxons?
6. How did this commit Henry with the Pope?
7. Describe the effect of the "*Ban*," and Henry's submission.
8. What prince was elected meanwhile?
9. What other reverses attended Henry?

## CHAP. XLV.

1. How early had pilgrimages been made to the Holy Land?
2. When was the first resistance offered, and by whom?
3. Who was Peter the Hermit?
4. What was the nature and the result of his expedition?
5. What did Godfrey of Bouillon?
6. What was the conduct of his Crusaders?
7. Who were the Knights of St. John, and what were their strongholds?

## CHAP. XLVI.

1. Who was Zenghis Khan, and what tribes did he unite?
2. What demand did he make on the emperor of China, and how did he enforce it?
3. Describe the siege of Pekin.
4. What were Zenghis's conquests in the West?
5. What was the extent of the Mogul empire?
6. How did Zenghis resemble Alexander the Great?
7. What was the first conquest of the succeeding Mogul emperors?
8. What was the third?
9. What is comprehended under the modern "Mogul Empire?"

CHAP. XLVII.

1. Who were the Turkomans, and whence the term "*Ottoman*?"
2. Who overthrew the Eastern Empire?
3. Whence the "*Janizaries*?"
4. Name "the seven Churches?"
5. Who was Tamerlane?
6. Did he follow the steps of any other great conqueror?
7. Whom did he take prisoner? Give the story of the iron cage.
8. What two nations commanding the Straits kept him from Europe?
9. How are the festivities of Tamerlane at Samarcand described?
10. What prevented his Chinese campaign?
11. What became of the empire of Tamerlane?

CHAP. XLVIII.

1. On what ally did the Christians in Palestine call?
  2. What was the result to him, and to the holy cause?
  3. Who were the other crusading princes?
  4. What part did Richard I. take?
  5. What was his success, and what his fate?
  6. Relate the attempts of Innocent III., of Andreas of Hungary, and of Frederick II.
  7. What king of France joined the last Crusade?
  8. What losses did Europe sustain in these wars?
  9. Did they hold the Holy Land after all?
  10. What was the effect on arts and civilisation?
- [Read "*Crusades*," in *Cyclopædia*; also Robertson's account in the Introduction of his *Charles V.*]

CHAP. XLIX.

1. What is the extent of "*The East Indies*?"
2. How did the Greeks obtain the produce of India, and by what route?
3. What was the route and chief mart after the time of Alexander the Great?
4. When this route became dangerous, what others were chosen?
5. What towns thereby gained an ascendancy?
6. What was the Hanseatic confederacy?
7. What destroyed the trade of the Hanse cities?
8. What route from India was by Constantinople?

274      QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

9. What effect was produced on it by the Crusaders?
10. What made the Genoese rich and powerful?
11. How did they lose their trade?
12. What was the route by the Persian Gulf?
13. When did the Indian commerce pass through Venice?

CHAP. L.

1. How came the Portuguese into communication with the Arabians?
2. Who first endeavoured to find a passage by sea to India?
3. When was Madeira discovered?
4. What other discoveries were made about this time?
5. When, and how, did the slave trade originate?
6. Who first discovered the Cape of Good Hope?
7. Who first sailed as far as India?
8. With what opposition did he meet?

CHAP. LI.

1. Who was Columbus?
2. What was his reasoning as to a western passage to India?
3. To what governments did he apply, and with what success?
4. How long was it before he was assisted, and to what extent?
5. With what difficulties had he to contend?
6. On what shores did they successively land?
7. What induced Columbus to return?
8. On what were all but Columbus most intent?
9. What was the result of his second voyage?
10. What reward did he reap for all his labours?
11. Why were the West Indies so called?

CHAP. LII.

1. When was Brazil discovered?
2. What was the conduct of the Spanish adventurers?
3. Who was Balboa, and what was his fate?
4. Who was Cortez?
5. Who discovered California?
6. Trace the voyages and discoveries of Cortez.
7. Who was Magellan, and what were his discoveries?
8. Who first circumnavigated the world?
9. What difference in time did they discover on their return?

10. How is that explained ?
11. Who was Pizarro ?
12. How did he treat the Peruvians ?
13. Have the Spanish colonies flourished ?
14. What is their present position ?

CHAP. LIII.

1. Who opposed, and who befriended, the Portuguese in India ?
2. What progress did they make in India ?
3. What were the conquests of Albuquerque ?
4. What first opened the trade of China ?
5. What further discoveries did Spain make ?
6. Who won their settlements from them ?
7. To whom did the Dutch yield them ?

CHAP. LIV.

1. What was the nature of ancient weapons of war ?
2. Was gunpowder known first in Europe ?
3. Was it at once used in warfare ?
4. Who invented cannon ?
5. When was the first kind of gun made ?
6. Trace the course of discovery.

CHAP. LV.

1. Is gunpowder the most useful of all the discoveries of the same era ?
2. What others can you mention ?
3. How did the knowledge of paper reach Europe ?
4. Who discovered the art of engraving ?
5. How did card playing give a stimulus to that discovery ?
6. How did this originate printing ?
7. When and where was printing first in use ?
8. Who discovered it in Europe ?
9. What partnership in the printing trade was then formed ?
10. What became of Faust and his companions ?
11. What is said of the art of bookbinding ?
12. In what country is it brought to the greatest perfection ?
13. Where was copper-plate engraving discovered ?
14. What is the process ?
15. Who was Albert Dürer ?
16. Who invented spectacles and telescopes ?



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17. For what purpose are steam-engines chiefly employed?
18. To what important purpose is the electro-magnet applied?
19. How early was the compass known in Europe?
20. Who introduced it into navigation?

CHAP. LVI.

1. To what era do we ascribe the revival of learning?
2. In what country first?
3. What influence did this produce in favour of the Reformation?
4. What great and learned man assisted it in England?
5. Who was John Huss?
6. What was his fate?
7. What effect on general civilisation was produced by the Turkish conquest of Constantinople?
8. What literature was chiefly diffused by that event, and why?

CHAP. LVII.

1. Who was Martin Luther?
2. How was his attention first directed to papal errors?
3. Explain the sale of indulgences.
4. What Pope opposed, and who befriended, Luther?
5. What were the papal errors chiefly insisted on?
6. What was the Diet of Worms?
7. Trace Luther's progress from 1522 to 1530.
8. When were the first great concessions made to the Protestants?
9. What part did Charles V. take?
10. Name the other great reformers of Luther's time.
11. Who was Zwingli?

CHAP. LVIII.

1. Who were the Jesuits?
2. What was the cause of "the Thirty Years' War?"
3. Who were the great generals?
4. What parties were engaged in that war?
5. Who was Wallenstein?  
[Read Schiller's "Thirty Years' War."]

CHAP. LIX.

1. Who was Gustavus Adolphus?
2. What were the successes, and what the end of Wallenstein?

3. In what way was his loss felt ?
4. What was the fortune of the Danes ?
5. What treaty ended this war ?
6. What were its terms ?

CHAP. LX.

1. What kind of king was Henry IV. of France ?
2. What great massacre took place in his youth ?
3. What religious party did he espouse ?
4. Did he continue a Protestant ?
5. What was the edict of Nantes ?
6. What domestic improvements did he encourage ?
7. What was his end and private character ?

CHAP. LXI.

1. Who was Louis XIV. ?
2. When was he at the height of his power ?
3. What was the war of the " Spanish succession ? "
4. What was the league of Augsburg ?
5. When did Louis revoke the edict of Nantes ?
6. What was the consequence of that to the Protestants ?
7. What was the character of Louis XIV. ?

CHAP. LXII.

1. Who founded the greatness of the Russian empire ?
2. What was his first triumph ?
3. What did he do as to ship-building and harbours ?
4. What conspiracy was formed and defeated ?
5. How did Peter qualify himself for the arts of peace ?
6. What severe measures did Peter take in Moscow ?
7. What alliance did Peter form ?
8. Who was Charles XII. ?
9. Relate the contests between him and Peter ?
10. When did Peter die, and what were his last actions ?

CHAP. LXIII.

1. Who was the first king of Prussia ?
2. What was his character ?
3. Why did Frederick II. make war on the Empress Maria Theresa ?
4. What course did the empress then take ?
5. What actions were fought by Frederick ?
6. What change in Russia proved in his favour ?
7. When was a general peace concluded ?
8. How did Frederick then act ?

## CHAP. LXIV.

1. When and by whom was the foundation of the British navy laid?
2. What was the most powerful kingdom of Europe in the 16th century?
3. What caused the revolt of the Netherlands?
4. What powers opposed the Spaniards?
5. Who made the second voyage round the world?
6. Describe the Spanish Armada, its object, and its fate.
7. How did Cromwell endeavour to favour commerce?
8. What conduct in Louis XIV. aided the naval supremacy of England?
9. What was commenced in 1740?
10. When was the seven years' naval war?
11. What were its chief events?
12. What war at this time was carried on in India?
13. Who were Hyder Ali, and Tippoo Saib?
14. Who were the East India Company?
15. Who was Captain Cook, and what were his discoveries? What his fate?

## CHAP. LXV.

1. When did the British colonise North America?
2. What part of America was colonised by the Puritans?
3. What was the first cause of discontent in these colonies?
4. What were the next measures?
5. Did England try to reduce the colonies to obedience?
6. With what result?
7. Who was Washington?
8. Who was Franklin?
9. Account for the term "The United States."

## CHAP. LXVI.

1. In what state did Louis XVI. find France?
2. What measure did he adopt?
3. What caused the people to take up arms? In what year did they take the Bastille?
4. What form of government was adopted?
5. What was the fate of the king and queen of France?
6. What men rose to power after the death of the king?
7. Who was Napoleon Bonaparte?
8. What offices and titles did he successively assume?
9. What did he do for France?

10. What countries did he conquer?
11. Of what countries did he make his brothers king?
12. Who were Joachim Murat and Bernadotte?

CHAP. LXVII.

1. What was the result of the war of Napoleon with Austria in 1809?
2. Whom did he marry when he had divorced his first wife?
3. How did he attempt to weaken England?
4. What country suffered most by this system?
5. When and with what force did Napoleon enter Russia?
6. What was the issue of the Russian campaign?
7. What events compelled him to leave Russia?
8. What great victory was gained over him by the Germans and Russians?
9. When did the allies enter Paris?
10. Who was now placed on the throne of France?
11. What became of Napoleon?
12. When did he leave Elba?
13. When, where, and by whom was he then totally defeated?
14. What became of him at last?

CHAP. LXVIII.

1. When did the Spanish American colonies begin their efforts for independence?
2. What countries declared themselves free between 1816 and 1821?
3. Which of the colonies does Spain still retain?

CHAP. LXIX.

1. What occasioned discontent in Germany in 1819?
2. What conduct of Ferdinand VII. occasioned discontent in Spain.
3. When did the Spaniards attempt open resistance?
4. By whose help was the king restored to despotic authority.
5. When did the king of Portugal return from Brazil?
6. Who succeeded this king?
7. To whom did he make over the crown?
8. Who deprived her of it?
9. What course did Don Pedro then adopt?

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10. Who were the Carbonari, and what was their object ?
11. What was the conduct of the king of Naples and his son ?
12. Did they keep their oath ?

**CHAP. LXX.**

1. How had the Turks treated the Greeks subjected to them ?
2. When did the Greeks revolt against them ?
3. Whom did the Turks summon to their aid ?
4. What powers now united to attack the Turks ?
5. How far did the Russian armies advance ?
6. When was Greece declared independent ?

**CHAP. LXXI.**

1. When did a revolution again break out in France ?
2. Who was then the king of France, and what had been his general conduct ?
3. What happened in consequence in July 1830 ?
4. What became of Charles X. ?
5. Who was then made king ?

**CHAP. LXXII.**

1. What events now took place in Holland and Belgium ?
2. When was Belgium declared independent ?
3. Who was made king of it ?

**CHAP. LXXIII.**

1. Who had governed Poland since 1815 ?
2. When did the Poles revolt ?
3. What was the result ?
4. When did the Russians take Warsaw by storm ?
5. When was Poland formally declared part of Russia ?

**CHAP. LXXIV.**

1. In what other European country had disturbances taken place ?
2. What happened about the same time in Switzerland ?
3. What happened in Germany ?
4. How were means of communication increased in that country ?
5. Between what parties did a struggle again take place in Switzerland ?
6. When did Pius IX. become Pope ?
7. What happened soon after his accession ?

CHAP. LXXV.

1. How did king Louis Philippe govern France ?
2. What induced the people to demand a change ?
3. What circumstance occasioned a tumult ?
4. How did it terminate ?
5. What afterwards took place ?
6. Who was placed at the head of the Provisional Government ?
7. What happened in Paris in June 1848 ?
8. Who was elected President of the new Republic ?

CHAP. LXXVI.

1. Did other European countries remain tranquil ?
2. What measures were demanded by the people of Germany ?
3. What happened in Austria ?
4. What in the Lombardo-Venetian Kingdom ?
5. Between whom was the battle of Novara fought, and who was defeated ?
6. What happened in Hungary ?
7. Who was Kossuth ?
8. How was the contest ended ?

CHAP. LXXVII.

1. What happened in Berlin on the 18th of March ?

CHAP. LXXVIII.

1. What meeting took place in Frankfort in May of the same year ?
2. What can you mention of the proceedings there ?
3. What old institution was afterwards restored ?

CHAP. LXXIX.

1. What led to the war between Denmark and the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein ?
2. Can you mention any of the subsequent events in that struggle ?
3. When was peace restored ?

CHAP. LXXX.

1. What remarkable discovery took place in 1850, and where ?
2. What effect did it have on the country ?

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3. In what other country was a similar discovery made in 1851 ?
4. What remarkable meeting was held in London in that year ?
5. What number of visitors attended it ?
6. Why was this exhibition thought of such great importance ?
7. Were these expectations fulfilled ?

### CHAP. LXXXI.

1. What party had been gaining influence and power in France since 1848.
2. When did Louis Napoleon execute his design ?
3. What great change was made in the government on that day ?
4. Can you mention anything important that took place afterwards ?
5. What name is given to these proceedings ?
6. What happened on the 2nd of December in the following year ?
7. What professions did the new Emperor make of the policy he would pursue ?

### CHAP. LXXXII.

1. What great public event appeared likely in 1853 ?
2. What circumstance first occasioned a dispute ?
3. What step was taken by the Emperor of Russia to enforce his demand ?
4. What powers now entered into the quarrel ?
5. Where did the war begin ?
6. What event took place at Sinope ?
7. Where did the first campaign take place ?
8. What was the result of it ?
9. What measure was next resolved on ?
10. Can you describe the Crimea ?
11. What chiefly occasioned disease and suffering in the army ?
12. Where was the first great victory gained by the Allies ?
13. When did the siege of Sebastopol begin ?
14. When and where was the "Soldiers' Battle ?"
15. What was after this the state of the English army ?
16. What other calamities occurred ?

CHAP. LXXXIII.

1. What was done in England to alleviate the sufferings of the soldiers?
2. What event took place on the 2nd of March 1855?
3. When was Sebastopol taken?
4. What description is given of the scene by an eye-witness?
5. When was peace proclaimed?
6. With what nations were the English next at war?

CHAP. LXXXIV.

1. By what memorable event was the year 1857 distinguished?
2. By what force had the English power in India been chiefly maintained?
3. What circumstances had recently occasioned discontent?
4. Where and when did the mutiny first break out?
5. What accounts were after this received from India?
6. What event took place before the end of the year?
7. When was Lucknow taken?
8. What change was now made in the government of India?
9. What consolation was afforded to England in this calamity?

CHAP. LXXXV.

1. In what state was Europe at the close of 1858?
2. What occasioned fears for the future?
3. What occurred on the 1st of January 1859, and on the 19th of April?
4. What followed on the demand?
5. When and where did the first battle take place?
6. When did the battle of Solferino take place?
7. How many men lost their lives on this occasion?
8. When and where was peace concluded?

THE END.



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"The fruit of seven years' toil, by a teacher occupying a distinguished position, this *Dictionary* has strong claims to favourable consideration. It is a convenient medium between the large and abridged dictionaries of Spiers and Tarver. The plan is admirable, and the execution worthy of the plan. The prominent features are—the insertion of the newest words, the correct translation of compound words—which often do not correspond in the two languages, and are, therefore, very liable to be mistranslated—the annexing of prepositions required after French verbs and adjectives, the distinct enumeration of the various senses in which a single word is often used, with proper renderings of each, and the introduction of useful idioms and phrases.....The typographical arrangement is remarkably clear,

consistent, and convenient for practical purposes. We must mention, as another excellence, the insertion of the principal tenses of irregular verbs, both French and English."

ATHENÆUM.

"This appears upon the first glance to be a model for a portable dictionary. It is in small 8vo., contains rather more than 500 pages [470 more—970], on good paper, but not too thick: so that the volume is compact in every sense. Although the words are very closely packed—for there is an immense number in a small space—the choice of type is excellently adapted to setting forth the original word, its several relations and explanations, with perfect distinctness: the reference is peculiarly easy—the eye glances over the page without hindrance, and fastens upon the word at once. The volume, however, contains improvements. It comprises all the new words introduced into both languages, such as 'photograph,' 'stereoscope,' 'potichomanie.' A part of the packing is effected by an ingenious use of figures and other signs to indicate the peculiar acceptation of words. Specimens of the most prominent idioms and familiar phrases are thrown in; and irregular verbs are worked out, so as to save trouble and mistake. We have gleaned over the dictionary to test some of the more ordinary defects, especially erroneous spelling, and we find that it stands this test well. The old-fashioned spelling seems to be corrected; we do not, for example, find 'bonhomme,' but 'bonhomie,' in the modern fashion."

SPECTATOR.

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